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ABSTRACT

The competency concept related to performance has recently been gaining a place in the professional literature, but its application to the specific field of educational administration has been limited. Several universities have moved towards competency performance-based administrator preparation programs, and the interest shown by the profession indicates that many more institutions and States will soon utilize the concept. The material in this compilation is organized in a manner intended to convey a logical sequence of inquiry for understanding the development of the competency-based concept. Each section is introduced with a brief explanation of what is included and what progress has been made, and includes annotated bibliographical items to provide a survey of research and authoritative writing in specific approaches to the competency concept. The sections relate to the nature of a competency-based program, the basis of the concept, models available for preservice university preparation programs, improvements for inservice programs, and methods of assessing competencies. (Pages 51-101 may reproduce poorly.) (Author/LK)

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“73 Administrative Competencies Seminar”

The Identification and Development of Administrative Competencies

January 16, 17, 18

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ADMINISTRATIVE SEMINAR

IDENTIFICATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE COMPETENCIES

Administrative Competency/Performance Based Resource Materials

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION
Harold E. Moore, Acting Chairman
Arizona State University
January 16, 17, 18, 1973

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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

The complexities of administering schools today are greater than those a decade or two ago, and the problems to be faced in another decade might be considerably greater. The school administrator is challenged each day to exhibit certain skills and competencies as he undertakes his routine tasks. What is the nature of these competencies? Do they differ depending upon the title of position held? What is the relationship between competencies and performance? Specifically, what do we mean when we speak of a competency?

These questions are basic to the task of providing capable administrators of all types. They are equally important in developing effective inservice programs for administrators to assist in coping with somewhat more unique local problems.

Competency infers the capacity to perform a specific administrative task at a satisfactory level of performance. It implies that the individual possesses an ability, a skill, a talent, knowledge and understanding which is necessary to achieve satisfactory performance.

The competency concept related to performance has been gaining a place in the professional literature recently, but its application to the specific field of educational administration has been limited. Several universities have moved toward competency performance-based administrator preparation programs, and the interest shown in the profession indicates that many more institutions and states will soon utilize the concept.

A basic problem seems to be that of determining how the competencies will be structured: (1) Should they be stated in terms of functions of administrators? (2) Should they be in relation to administrative problems? or (3) Are there other reference factors to which the competencies should be related?

The material in this compilation is organized in a manner intended to convey to the reader a logical sequence of inquiry for understanding the development of the competency-based concept. The sections to follow are introduced with a brief explanation of what is included and what progress has been made. Each section includes annotated bibliographical items to provide a survey of research and authoritative writing in specific approaches to the competency concept.

The sections to which attention is given are: (a) What is a competency-based program? (b) How is the concept based? (c) Preservice University Preparation Programs: What models are available? (d) Inservice Programs: How can programs be improved? and (e) How can competencies be assessed?

The appendixes are color coded and combine related materials according to respective sections.

SECTION II

WHAT IS A COMPETENCY-BASED PROGRAM?

Questions useful in clarifying the concept of the competency-based program have been used by university staffs. Those used at University of Connecticut reflect the full range of areas needing answers in the development of such a program.

- What functions does the administrator perform?
- What content must he master to be able to perform these functions?
- What competencies must he possess that will enable him to master the content?
- What levels of competency must one possess who wishes to understand administration?
- Will those who are prepared in the field of administration need to possess different levels of competency dependent on their roles?
- What experiences can be provided through a program that will enable those being prepared to attain competency?
- What measures are available that will tell one when a person has attained a satisfactory level of competency?

Three kinds of activities are now occurring in the attempt to answer these questions. Various colleges and universities are developing: (1) specific competencies and the instructional techniques designed for their achievement, (2) a framework by which specific competencies may be matched with the most appropriate methods, and (3) programs in educational administration based on competencies.

Confusion may arise when the reader meets the terms performance-based and competency-based curriculum. W. Robert Houston has attempted to clarify the similarities and differences of these two terms. (See appendix A). Basically, competency statements are not behaviorally stated objectives. They are molar in character and indicate a set of technical, conceptual and human knowledge skills necessary to function effectively in the administrative role.

It is the picturing of adequate and appropriate behavior patterns by which competence may be described. Behavior patterns allow us to discard the ineffective method of describing competencies by lists of traits and qualities.

Competence means competent human behavior; competent human behavior is nothing more or less than quality behavior, and quality behavior is to be found in the dynamic pattern of performance.[1]

---

[1] Orin B. Graff, Improving Competence in Educational Administration. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1956, p. 17.

ANNOTATED SELECTED REFERENCES

Allen, Wendell C., L. V. Cady and W. H. Drummond, "Performance Criteria for Educational Personnel Development: A State Approach to Standards," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol 20, (Summer, 1969), pp. 133-135.

> The authors describe Washington State's proposed program of professional educational preparation based on the following ideas:
>
> 1) Preparation should be continuous throughout the career of educational personnel.
> 2) Preparation should be individualized.
> 3) Preparation should be based on performance.
> 4) Professional associations and school organizations, as well as colleges and universities, should have responsible preparation roles.

Brown, T. C., Stenchever, M. S., and Carter, J. E. "A Competency based Curriculum Model for Undergraduate Medical Education," unpublished paper. University of Utah Medical Centre, June, 1972.

> This medical curriculum model was derived from McCleary's competency-based performance model. It includes some variations related to medical practice. Evaluation of third year medical students by instruction through this form of preparation demands a dramatic change in present instructional patterns. Individualization and modular scheduling are a few of the modifications the authors suggest may be necessary.

Cooper, James M. "A Performance Curriculum for Teacher Education." Second Annual Florence B. Stratemeyer Lecture presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, ED 030 590, February 16, 1967, Chicago, Illinois.

> This speech on a performance curriculum for teacher education stresses the teacher trainee's need of specific skills to make a successful transition from theory to practice. Advantages of the curriculum, such as focused evaluation and practice in deciding when to use different skills, are mentioned. Outlines of Stanford University's general and foreign language curricula and criteria for two skills are included.

Elam, Stanley. *Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is the State of the Art?* Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, December, 1971.

The author was invited by the AACTE Committee on Performance Based Teacher Education to summarize the outcomes of the task force's attempt to clarify and review current status on the development of this concept across America. Elam enumerates and defines the five essential elements of PBTE and points to the necessity for PBTE to develop systems and models for adequate evaluation. Sighted, in addition, are the many advantages.

Graff, Orin B. *Improving Competence in Educational Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956.

The book consists of a theoretical construct or general hypothesis involving an integration of the elements considered essential for competent behavior in educational administration. The materials in the book spring from the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, the Southern States Work Conference. The construct developed is called a Competency Pattern. Included in the book are areas of critical tasks of educational administration from which the reader can build his individual competency pattern. This seemingly dated resource becomes rather a good starting point on which to build an understanding of competency based performance.

Houston, W. Robert. "Competency/Performance/or Proficiency-Based Teacher Education." A paper prepared at the University of Houston, 1972. (Mimeographed).

Houston attempts to give input into clarifying the similarities or differences in the concepts of performance based and competency based teacher education.

Performance based systems focus on objectives.

Competency based systems focus on viable criteria.

Both are useful, not conflicting Houston states.

McIntyre, Kenneth E. "Administering and Improving the Instructional Program." Unpublished paper, University of Texas, n.d.

The author has generated 32 competency statements and cited illustrative examples of these behaviors indicative of their performance. These competencies are suggested guidelines for administrator skill development. The author further hopes that these guidelines will result in improved preparation programs at universities. Eight key responsibilities are identified. They include:

1) The principal develops school unit goals and objectives to guide instruction.

2) The principal allocates staff personnel to accomplish instructional goals.

3) The principal allocates time and space to accomplish instructional goals.

Peterson, Donovan. "Developing a Competency Based Program in School Finance." Unpublished paper, University of South Florida, Fall, 1972.

The author provides a brief description of the process he used to identify critical problem areas related to school administration and the translation of these into competency statements that should be developed at the graduate level.

Because the author saw school finance as related most closely to the largest number of critical problems, he chose it as an area he would develop. Four general aspects of finance were developed.

1) Program funding analysis.

2) School budget preparation and administration.

3) Projection of future funding requirements.

4) Finance system evaluation and change.

Seiforth, John C. _Process Skills Model of Administrator Competency Preparation_. Queens College, New York, n.d.

The author has created what he calls a Process Skills Model. Criteria are arranged on a process dimension and skills dimension. A utilization methodology has also been created. Administrative skills developed include:

1) Preparation (Planning, Organizing, Communicating and Influencing).

2) Cognitive Execution (Coordinating, Evaluating, Decision Making).

3) Action.

Shearron, Gilbert F., and Johnson, Charles E. "A Prototype for a Competency-Based Proficiency Module," GEM Bulletin. Athens: College of Education, University of Georgia, 1969. ED 042 693.

This design model for a proficiency module (PM) illustrates the kinds of learning experiences that might be available in a PM for one small part of the teacher education professional sequence. It includes general directions, list of prerequisites, preassessment instructions, lists of general performance specifications and supporting behaviors, lists of learning procedures, activities, and resources, and post assessment instructions.

Woodington, Donald D. "Accountability from the Viewpoint of a State Commissioner of Education," Phi Delta Kappan, (October, 1972) pp. 95-97.

As state commissioner, Mr. Woodington operates the one in seven initial projects on an operational basis of statewide accountability legislation the Part of the Cooperative Accountability Project (CAP) which includes Florida, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Oregon and Wisconsin. Colorado is the administering state. The project has five specific objectives in these five areas:

1) Legislative Mandate.

2) Criterion Standards.

3) Model Identification.

4) Role Expectations.

5) Reporting Practices and Procedures.

SECTION III

HOW IS THE CONCEPT BASED?

Over the years there have been scattered efforts to quantify and qualify administrative behaviors. Studies to qualify what leaders are seem to have been of less value in producing preparation programs than studies of what leaders do. Four methods used to establish a basis for competency based performance include: (1) the critical incident technique, (2) the direct observation method, (3) the case study approach, and (4) a survey of relevant literaure. One, or more than one, of these approaches was used in most of the entries in this section. Reading the following annotations will reveal that disparities exist between what is really happening, as revealed by direct observation of the administrator's day-to-day role, for instance, and what colleagues believe to be the ideal dimensions of administrative behavior. As the profession moves toward developing a broadly accepted base of administrative competencies, it will be necessary to seek out or support basic research to validate these competencies.

Competency or performance based curriculums for preservice and redesigned programs of inservice focused on accountability must be based on performance statements validated in practice. A search for such validation presupposes agreement on these competency statements which describe administrator behaviors. A thorough search of the literature has revealed that both areas are woefully lacking in the quantity necessary to establish conclusive validation.

ANNOTATED SELECTED REFERENCES

Austin, David, and Harry Brown. Report of the Assistant Principalship. Volume 3: The Study of the Secondary School Principalship. Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970.

> This monograph reports the results of a three-part study of the assistant principalship that attempted to delineate the nature, function, and relative status of the position. The study types used were (1) normative, (2) career, and (3) shadow. Data for the first two studies were gathered from questionnaires completed by over 1,200 assistant principals, while shadow study data stem from observations of assistant principals at work. From the shadow studies, researchers discovered that it is essentially the assistant principal who makes the school go. The normative study revealed that some disharmony exists between the way an assistant principal understands the range and character of his duties, and the way a principal sees them. The career study disclosed that most assistant principals, male and female, derived much less satisfaction from their tenures as assistant principals than from their years spent in other assignments.

Borg, W.R., Burr, J.F., Silvester, A. S. "Four Criteria of Principal Effectiveness," Journal of Educational Research, 54 (May, 1961) pp 332-7.

> Although the authors discuss characteristics rather than criteria, they do it with an eye toward the future.
>
> "In all likelihood, what is needed in the development of criteria of administrator effectiveness is a bold behavior oriented approach which would include measures of human relations skills, effectiveness in dealing with administrative problems and group interaction effectiveness, using role playing, leaderless group discussion, and similar techniques taken from fields of psychology and sociology." p. 337.

Bruce, Robert L., and G. L. Carter, Jr. "Administrative Climate," Journal of Cooperative Extension, 1967. ED 013 392.

> The major influences on administrative climate and employee productivity are examined in essays on, (1) sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, (2) motivational theories, (3) administrative feedback, (4) contrasting leadership styles, and (5) the counseling approach.

Cook, Halsey H. and Kenneth P. Van Otten, "A Study of the Prime Competencies Required to Perform the Tasks of the Secondary School Principalship," unpublished Dissertation (Tentative), Department of Educational Administration, University of Utah, June, 1973.

This dissertation seeks to elicit from superintendents, secondary school principals and secondary teachers a consensus of agreement on the prime competencies needed for secondary school principals. The study sought: (1) a list of statements describing competencies, (2) attitudes of groups surveyed about those competencies, (3) attitudes as to how these competencies ought to function in the secondary school principalship, and (4) the extent of agreement among referent groups about the importance of these competencies as they now function and as they ought to function.

Cox, Richard C. Evaluating Aspects of Criterion - Referenced Measures, March, 1970 ED 038 679.

The article develops and interprets criterion-referenced measurement. The topic of validity of such measures is touched upon.

Foster, Lucille. "Perceived Competencies of School Supervisors," Dissertation Abstracts, 20: 02, 568, 1959.

Four major areas of activity were derived from the behaviors as constituting critical areas of the work of elementary general curriculum supervisors: (1) providing opportunities for acquiring inservice growth, (2) curriculum materials, (3) interpersonal relations, and (4) working with parents and parent groups.

Fred, Danial K. "Performance-Based Teacher Certification: What is it and why do we need it?" Paper prepared in conjunction with a training program for education leaders, May, 1971 ED 045 551.

Supports performance-based concept of teacher certification. Lists and discusses activities to encourage movement toward the concept of performance-based certification.

Garland, Walter C. An Identification of Success Criteria in Educational Administration. Columbus, Ohio State University, 1955.

Nine major areas with criteria statements about Educational Administration are provided. The areas are:

1. Educational Administration employs a creative approach to matters of educational concern.
2. Educational administration promotes and secures the professional growth of the people connected with and related to the educational enterprise.

3. Educational Administration manifests high ability in the assessment of values, purposes, needs, and in their translation into realistic educational goals.
4. Educational Administration exhibits skills in apprais-ing the manner in which existing situational factors will affect the attainment of goals.
5. Educational Administration establishes and maintains an appropriate climate which enables effective contributions by those involved.
6. Educational Administration initiates and maintains procedures and structures which enable broadened participation in the administrative process.
7. Educational Administration secures an effective utilization of all available situational resources.
8. Educational Administration envisions the totality of administration and integrates its component elements to secure established objectives.
9. Educational Administration provides for systematic review of all phases of the educational venture and effects desirable reconstructions.

Gorton, Dick. The Importance of Administrator Expertise in Instructional Leadership. A paper presented at American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, February, 1971. ED 048 645.

This Document reports on a study that investigated the relation between the secondary principal's instructional expertise, as perceived by the classroom teacher, and the likelihood that a teacher with an instructional problem would seek the principal's assistance. The major conclusions were: (1) perceived expertise is the most important variable in determining the likelihood that a teacher will seek the assistance of another individual, whether that person is principal, department head, teaching colleague, or member of central office staff; (2) of the four potential sources of instructional leadership, teachers perceived the principal as possessing the lease degree of expertise for helping with instructional problems; and (3) as a result of these findings, the principal may need to redefine his role responsibilities.

Clemens, Donald, "Study of the Relationships of Certain Variables to the Perceived Level of Competencies of Junior High Principals." Dissertation Abstracts, 26: 08, 4361, 1966.

Eight critical task areas were treated: (1) instruction and curriculum, (2) pupil personnel, (3) staff personnel, (4) community school leadership, (5) school plant, (6) school transportation, (7) organization and structure, and (8) school finance and business management.

Hipkins, Leroy, "A study of Priorities of Competencies in Educational Administration as Perceived by Professors of Educational Administration," COSO, 1964.

The study developed a priority of administrative behaviors as perceived by the NCPEA. 212 respondents perceived behaviors dealing with human relations competencies were most important. Proof that one kind of administrative behavior is more important than another requires more research.

Hough, Wendell M. "Research on Criteria of Educational Administrative Success," 21: 01,106, 1960. Micro. 292.

Compilation of most of the major work done at Wayne State University by doctoral students attempting to establish a viable standard set of administrative criteria.

Lynam, William Joseph. A Study of the Administrative Competencies Needed by the Community College Academic Dean and a Model of Their Translation into Behavioral Statements Related to Administrative Training Experiences. Michigan State University, 1970.

The study examined the following assumptions: (1) a set of administrative competencies could be generated; (2) administrative competencies are important; (3) administrative competencies can be described through behavioral terminology; (4) administrative competencies and their behavioral statements can have implications for learning experiences.

Meyer, John David. Competencies Needed and Possessed by Vocational Education Administrators. Colorado State University, 1970.

Study determined competencies needed and the competencies possessed by vocational education administrators. It recommended the use of internship programs for administrators in vocational education.

Miner, John. The School Administrator and Organizational Character. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1967.

To determine major factors affecting selection and performance of supervisors in school organizations, data were analyzed from a school administrator evaluation form for 219 administrative personnel (79.3 percent of 276 total), representing large city, medium city, small city, and consolidated school districts in the Pacific Northwest. Applying techniques used in the analysis of business organizations, the study revealed that criteria for selection of school supervisors are determined by job performance criteria for the position and especially by the kind of district concerned. This leads to the formulation of "Organizational Climace" as a determining variable in the selection of supervisory personnel for a particular district. Descriptions are given for indices of supervisor effectiveness, as indicated by organizational reward (grade level assignment and salary) and overall potential for achievement (biographical factors, verbal ability, inner life orientation, conformity, creativity, innovation, and managerial work and social motivations).

Nash, Robert J. "Commitment to Competency: The New Fetishism in Teacher Education," Phi Delta Kappan, 52 (December 1970), pp.240-43.

The author argues that teacher educators are offering training only in performance skills at a time when students are demanding training that challenges social and educational values and that places "micro-level" behavior modification in personal and social contexts. He includes questions which educators should ask themselves about fetishism in their programs.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, The Principalship: Job Specifications and Salary Considerations for the 70's. Washington, D. C. NASSP, 1970.

This publication uses the following categories to describe the updated role of the secondary school principal:

1. An educational leader.
2. An administrator.
3. An interpreter.
4. A conflict mediator.
5. An educator of educators.
6. An ombudsman.
7. A professional.

Brief statements of functions are included under each topic heading.

The section on a modern approach to evaluation stresses the principal's evaluation on the basis of all these roles.

Newbold, Kenneth Raynor, "A Description of North Carolina Principals on Selected Dimensions of Competence." Dissertation Abstracts, 28: 12A, 4857, 1968.

Eleven dimensions of competence were identified from research and literature: (1) intellectual ability, (2) ability to communicate, (3) judgment and the ability to make decisions, (4) ability to work with others, (5) leadership ability, (6) educational philosophy, (7) dependability, (8) health, (9) content background in education and administration, (10) teaching experience, and (11) content background in related disciplines.

Noak, John. "Leadership Roles in the Elementary School. 1969 ED 035 611.

A study to determine current perceptions of leadership roles appropriate to teachers and principals at the elementary level.

Headings for 55 functions are:

1) Working with pupil personnel
2) " " the profession
3) " " the Community
4) " " Central Staff
5) " " Building personnel (directly)
6) " " " " (indirectly)

Each heading has numerous functional statements after it.

Popham, James and T. R. Husek, "Implications of Criterion-Referenced Measurement," Journal of Educational Measurement. Spring, 1969, pp. 1-9.

The author draws a distinction between criterion-referenced measures and norm referenced measures pointing out that criterion measures are individual's performance in respect to some specific standard. Norm-referenced performance refers to performance related to performance of others.

Purrington, Gordon. "Administrator Competencies and Organizational Effectiveness. "Educational Systems Development Center, Florida State University. Paper presented at AERA Meeting, February, 1968, Chicago, Illinois.

Organizational goals are achieved through the cooperative efforts of organization's members. In a school organization, administrator competencies are related to the effectiveness with which the school functions. If a school system is to function properly, the administrator must solve to some degree the four problems of productivity, external flexibility, internal flexibility, and reduction of tension and strain. To solve these problems he must possess minimum technical,conceptual, administrative, and human relations skills. The study concluded that the administrator's competencies seem to be related to the effective functioning of the system. Whether the functional requirements of the organization are solved, and whether the needs and behaviors of individuals in the organization are made congruent with the organizational goals seem to depend on the competencies of the administrators in the organization

Rentz, R. Robert. "The Relationship Between Supervisor's Activities and Their Perception of the Purpose of Supervision." Jan. 1972. ED 028 500.

Data in this study included activities of supervisors and their perceptions of the purposes of supervision. Twenty-two different tasks were listed for examination in this study.

Rosenberger, David. "Critical Areas of Administrative Behavior." Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1956.

The author studied ten critical areas of administrative behavior. When he finished by the direct observation method he discovered these categories remained with the last added as a new area:

1) Setting goals
2) Making policy
3) Determining roles
4) Coordinating administrative functions and structure
5) Communicating
6) Fostering Human Relations
7) Involving people and material resources means by which these descriptors have been gathered:

Critical Incident technique
Direct Observation method
Case Study Methodology
Survey of Literature

Ryans, David G. Characteristics of Teachers: Their Description, Comparison, and Appraisal; A Research Study. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1960.

This is a complete report of a nine-year investigation to identify major patterns of teacher behavior, attitudes, viewpoints, and intellectual and emotional qualities. The study also developed instruments suitable for the estimation of patterns of classroom behavior and personal qualities.

Schalock, H. Del. "The Focus of Performance-Based Certification: Knowledge, Teaching Behavior, or the Products that Derive from a Teacher's Behavior." Paper prepared for Conference on Performance-Based Certification, Florida State Department of Education, May 19-22, 1970, Miami Beach. ED 045 550.

Schlock sees as the central question in performance-based certification whether performance beyond the knowledge level should be measured by teacher behavior, the product of teacher behavior, or both. He summarizes arguments for each position, as well as issues that need resolving if either is to become the basis for certification.

Schriver, Joseph P. Critical Requirements for Effective Performance of School Administrators. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1955.

The author lists the following critical requirements:

Area I Administration of Staff Personnel
" II Administrator-School Board Relationships
" III Directing School Community Relations

Area IV Managing the Fiscal and Business Aspects of the School System
" V Administration and Organization of Instruction and Pupil Services.

Each Area has sub-summed categories under it. These categories then contain statements of function.

Todd, Robert Floyd. "Interrelationships Within Competency Pattern for School Administrators," Dissertation Abstract. 20: 07,966, 1964.

The study isolated eight task categories, then studied them to see how many factors were interrelated in the performance of those tasks. One conclusion indicated that an administrator competence in the task area of Organization and Structure would more likely be competent in the other seven task areas. Of 814 behaviors examined only 328 were found interrelated, and out of these, 120 interrelationships were established.

Treblas, John. "Priorities of Competencies in Educational Administration as Perceived by Superintendents of Public Schools," COSU, 1966,

265 public school superintendents made value judgments of priorities of emphasis that administrative behaviors should receive in training programs for the superintendency.

Agreement between superintendents and college professors of educational administration stated the following rankings should be observed as priorities in the training of educational administrators:

1) Development of human relations skills.
2) Development of general knowledge and skills related to the administration of the total school program.
3) Development of the specific understandings and skills related to subject matter areas and managerial tasks.

Wester, Elbert T. "Opinions of Superintendents of Schools and Professors of Education concerning Internships in Educational Administration as Related to Competencies Needed by Superintendents of Schools." Dissertation Abstract,26: 08, 4361, 1959.

Wester in his study reviewed professional literature and via a ducumentary frequency count using books and periodicals (1946-1956) produced a list of 167 competencies. He reduced these to 114 then to 50 discretely different competencies.

SECTION IV

PRESERVICE UNIVERSITY PREPARATION PROGRAMS: WHAT MODELS ARE AVAILABLE?

The stimulus of a nation-wide effort to create performance-based teacher preparation programs by universities and colleges provided the incentive for the development of such a movement in administrator preparation. However, administrators, especially building administrators, have been faced with role conflicts which have made clear delineation of their responsibilities hazy. In other words, there seems to be less agreement on the role of the administrator than that of the teacher. In this light, it is understandable how statements of competency or performance would develop at a slower rate. It is also possible to assume that as such competencies are developed and validated, clarification and reduced role conflict will take place.

University and college preparation or preservice programs are presently wrestling with a double task. Beginning with sometimes hazy, conflicting or canonical bases, an attempt is being made to generate a set of competency statements useful in competency or performance-based instructional programs, and then to validate these statements by empirical research. Such programs are being developed and field tested presently, and although in their infancy range from programs in specific areas such as school finance to total preparation programs in all aspects of administrative behavior.

Because these programs are competency based, some level of demonstrated skill is necessary. The development of models such as the McCleary-McIntyre model provides the theoretical framework necessary to visualize the interrelated dimensions involved in competency. As these programs develop it becomes apparent that individualized, flexibly scheduled programs will alter present preparation modes dramatically.

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Alberto, Rosario P. *Priorities of Competencies in Educational Administration as Judged by Government Officials*. University Officials, Superintendents and Principals in the Philippine Public Schools. University of Washington, 1970.

The purpose of the study was: 1) investigate relationship between judgemts of several types of job holders regarding competencies which preservice administrators should develop; 2) identify priorities of competencies; 3) investigate relationship between judgments and dispositions toward the development of a preservice training program in educational administration.

Barrilleaux, Louis, "Behavioral Outcomes for Administrative Internships: School Principals," *Educational Administration Quarterly*, (Winter 1972) pp. 59-71.

This article reports a model for preparing interns for service as educational administrators by the use of behavioral objectives. During the 1969-70 academic year the set of behavior objectives included in the article were used with twenty-nine administrative interns in the school principalship. Specific tables of levels of attainment are provided as a means of evaluating the efficacy of using these objectives in a realistic way. Advantages and disadvantages are discussed and recommendations made for continued investigation.

Beyers, William. "An Appraisal of the Graduate Program of Educational Administration at the University of Pittsburgh, "*Dissertation Abstracts*, 14:05,784, 1954.

The study produced a list of leadership competencies in Educational Administration and developed an instrument for appraising graduate training programs that lead to the doctorate in educational administration.

Boardman, Gerald R. "A Computer-Based Feedback Model for an Administrative In-Basket Simulation Exercise." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Research Association, February, 1971. ED 048 368.

The investigation attempted to establish a computer-based model for maximizing feedback of an administrative simulation and the analysis of its result. The type of model developed was intended to be a more sophisticated model than the one-shot in-basket format.

Brown, T. C., Stenchever, M. A., and Carter, J.E., "A Competency-Based Curriculum Model for Undergraduate Medical Education," *CCBC Notebook*, Vol. 1, No. 3, (May, 1972).

Brubacher, John and Clarence Olsen. "A Competency Based Program in Educational Administration, unpublished paper, University of Connecticut, n.d.

> The preparation of a total competency based program in Educational Administration. The entire faculty was involved in goal setting and goal development. The faculty developed nine procedured objectives which are to be used by the department and graduate students in the design of programs of study.

Campbell, Lee Lewis. *A Study of Leadership Competencies Developed by Educational Administration Courses at New York University*.1952.

> The study determined whether leadership competencies were enhanced or developed through courses offered in the Department of Administration at New York University. It identified competencies and arranged them in an instrument. The reactions of students in the course were sought.

Case, Charles, and Robert Larson. "Educational Administration and Planning Program." unpublished paper, University of Vermont, n.d.

> This competency based curriculum for educational administration includes ten general objectives, a process by which students determine specific objectives, alternate facilitating ways to achieve the objective, and a portfolio evaluation system.

Culbertson, Jack and others. *Preparing Educational Leaders for the Seventies: Final Report*, December, 1969. ED 040 941.

> A thorough examination of all the various aspects of preparation of educational leadership. Recommendations for content and structure, recruitment and selection, instructional approaches, field related experience, program evaluation and development are included.

Hess, J. W., and Levitt, M., "New Philosophies in Medical Education: Their Effect on Recognition of Competence," *Journal of the American Medical Association* 213, No. 6, (August 10, 1970).

Jason, H., "The Relevance of Medical Education to Medical Practice." *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 212, No. 12, (Jan.22, 1970.).

Johnson, Thomas J. "Implementing the Model," NASSP Bulletin 56, (March, 1972), pp. 42-52.

The article reiterates a PSSAS model and outlines in detail components of the program to prepare secondary school principals in terms of structure, content, personnel and activity.

Klopf, Gordon J. "The Principal as an Educational Leader in the Elementary School," Journal of Research and Development in Education. 53 (Spring, 1972), pp. 119-25.

The paper aims to postulate a construct of competencies for the principal as educational leader in the elementary school. They are listed as:

1. Personal Competencies
2. Generic Competencies
3. Functional Competencies

The author indicates that Bank Street College of Education is beginning three projects to deal with role definition of the elementary school principal as educational leader. Implications are for the development of pre and inservice training.

Knezevich, Stephen J. (ed.). Preparation for the American School Superintendency. Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1972.

This report is the latest in a series of national studies done by AASA in the area of administrator preparation. The survey instrument used was thorough, seeking from 288 institutions as complete a picture of preservice and inservice preparatory programs as could be obtained. The monograph presents the survey instrument, displays the data obtained, analyzes and interprets it.

Rasmussen, Gerald. "Report of the Program Development Committee." unpublished paper. California State University, May, 1972.

This is a brief resume of program revision based on statements of administrative competencies. The basic organizing assumptions are included with the program. The program will provide for both preservice training and inservice training of California administrators. Areas of competency included are, (1) human values and skills, (2) technical skills, and (3) knowledge, theories and concepts.

"The Development of a Competency Based, Individualized Program: University of Utah," an unpublished paper, Department of Educational Administration, University of Utah, n.d.

This paper traces the recent development of a competency-based preparation program at University of Utah. In 1970-71, the Department of Educational Administration developed a five-stage plan by which to change its program. These stages included: (1) long range planning, (2) staff and leadership development, (3) structures for innovation, (4) implementation and (5) creating additional linkages with the field. The CCBC Notebook (Competency Based Curriculum) was developed as part of Stage II planning.

The Department has completed a five year plan for the attainment of a completely individualized, competency based curriculum to replace its formal courses. This change will demand an altered role for the professor in that he will be guiding individuals rather than groups.

Weid, R. I., "Red Blood Cell Disorders as a Model for Definition of Curriculum Goals," Journal of Medical Education 46, No. 8, (August, 1971).

SECTION V

INSERVICE PROGRAMS:
HOW CAN PROGRAMS BE DEVELOPED?

Moved by the same impetus motivating departments of educational administration, the professionals in the field are seeking improvements in inservice training. A program such as Project Kansas 76, developed at Kansas State University as a preservice training for building administrators has been used successfully with practitioners already on-the-job. (See the annotation for further information).

School districts are researching new models for administrator evaluation based on competency statements. These instruments can be coupled with professional growth planning such as is done in Bell Junior High School, Jefferson County Public Schools, (Colorado).

Everett Nicholson suggested recently in the NASSP Bulletin that principals take the offensive by developing their own evaluative criteria. Louis Barrilleaux in a later issue reflected this point of view by seeing the accountability movement as an opportunity for proactiveness rather than reactiveness.

These are meager examples foreshadowing emerging trends as university preparation programs move toward greater field related cooperation and development. Intern and extern programs may establish the responsive link needed between the university and the practitioner. Newly developing programs may thereby move into a more rapid dissemination stage. The university cooperating with local districts may provide workshops and seminars growing out of programs actually in the development stages today.

Since a number of states have mandated changes in certification and training processes, change has been accelerated and inservice will proceed out of these new requirements more quickly than some people may expect.

Only in its second issue, the CCBC Notebook reported that requests from diverse educational groups experimenting with competencies continue to arrive, indicating a need for information in this area to be disseminated rapidly.

ANNOTATED SELECTED REFERENCES

American Association of School Administrators. Crisis in Middle Management. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1970

The article contains a number of ERIC document resumes on the school principalship. The key terms in this inclusive series of articles are: 1) administrator's role, 2) principals, 3) school administration, and 4) teacher administrator relationships.

American Association of School Administrators. Profiles of the Administrative Team. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1971.

The article gives a description of the role of the assistant superintendent in, 1) general school administration, 2) instruction, 3) business affairs, 4) personnel, 5) pupil services, and 6) human relations.

Ammentorp, William, and others. Instructional Objectives in Administrator Training. 1968. ED 053 441.

Education is the process of changing the behavior patterns of people. Educational objectives represent the kinds of behavior alterations that an educational institution wishes to bring about in its students. Administrators must be trained in the technique of organizing instruction that most successfully advances the educational goals of the school. This paper concentrates on the instructional objective technique of organizing instruction in the context of an administrator training program.

Arends, Robert L., and others. Handbook for the Development of Instructional Modules in Competency-Based Teacher Education Programs. Syracuse: Center for the Study of Teaching, 1971

Believing that instructional modules are the keystone of performance-based teacher education programs, the authors offer guidance in developing and writing modules. Skills covered are specifying objectives; developing hierachies of modules; and designing, writing, and cataloguing modules. Sample modular clusters and modules comprise half of the handbook. A glossary and 13-item bibliography are included.

Barrilleaux, Louis. "Accountability Through Performance Objectives," NASSP Bulletin, 56 (May, 1972), 103 110.

The author views the accountability movement as an opportunity for proactiveness rather than the usual reactiveness. As a result he suggests that school building administrators would welcome a definitive statement of educational mission translated into performance terms.

Ambiguous wording coupled with traditional expectations has comprised little force in altering present preparation and inservice for school administrators. He suggests a systematic planning approach which contains four sequential or cyclic processes...diagnostic, prescriptive, implementive, and evaluative. Under these categories are specified distinctive leadership behaviors.

Brown, Daniel J. The Poverty of Educational Administration. Paper presented at AERA 57th Annual Meeting, April 1972, Chicago, Illinois. ED 061 582.

Administrators are ill-equipped to meet contemporary challenge because of their lack of present day administrative knowledge. Two modes of behavior operate, 1) humanists, 2) scientific. A review of literature reveals an imbalance in favor of the humanists. The implications are discussed.

Giles, Frederic T., and Clifford D. Foster, Changing Teacher Education in a Large Urban University: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, July, 1972.

In the first of two parts of this monograph, Giles attempts to provide guidelines for changing teacher education.That process is reflected in how the State of Washington has restructured its certification and training processes. A five-step model is suggested to guide planning: (1) critical goal, (2) operational objective, (3) implementing activities, (4) continuous evaluation, and (5) revisions and recycling.

In the second part of the monograph, Clifford Foster, details the growth of the preparation program at University of Washington since 1967. The advantages and disadvantages of this new approach are discussed from actual experience.

Hazuda, Michael L. "Job Competencies of the Effective School Business Official," School Business Affairs,36 (May, 1970), pp. 131-32.

The article contains a listing of 59 statements of competency needed by school business officials.

Hess, Joseph W. and Levitt, Morton. "New Philosophies in Medical Education: Their Effect on Recognition of Competence," JAMA, 213, No. 6 (August, 1970).

Paper in support of competency based curriculum, "achievement or a comprehensive evaluation of competence should become the constant and time in school and course requirements should become the variable."

Hughes, Larry W., and Charles M. Achilles. *The Paired Administrator Team Concept: A Promising Administrator Training Model*. 1971. ED 057 480.

This report describes an administrator training program model in which a district-selected trainee and a practicing school administrator in an extern-intern approach work closely with the university and the local school system. Under this system, a trainee would enter a planned administrator training program at an approved institution of higher education that would tailor a joint program to include both the trainee and the practicing administrator. The projected program includes, (1) a summer session on campus for both trainee and administrator, (2) a full-time fall quarter for the trainee, (3) a winter quarter for the practicing administrator on campus, while the trainee fills in for him, and (5) an elective summer session for one or for both.

Jefferson County Public Schools. "Bell Junior High School's Personal/Professional Growth Plan." unpublished papers, Golden, Colorado, 1970.

The collective efforts of staff at this Colorado Junior High School have produced an accountable growth plan model with performance criteria. The criterion have been developed for these four processes: (1) open communications, (2) problem solving, (3) shared decision making, and (4) personal accountability.

Leadership Development Training Program for Administrators of New and Developing Junior Colleges. Final Report. Auburn University, Alabama, 1971. ED 057 783.

Auburn University sponsored a project of inservice and preservice study in the specialty of junior college education. Objectives included: (1) improved participant competency in the specialty, (2) increased role awareness in the junior college's expanding role, (4) encourage people knowledge about junior colleges to return to them and provide leadership and (5) prepare some to lead in the development and operation of educational programs for the disadvantaged.

McCleary, Lloyd E. and Kenneth E. McIntyre, "Competency Development and University Methodology," NASSP Bulletin, March, 1972, pp. 53-59.

The authors have created a competency-based curriculum model for which they are creating an exacting methodology for implementation. The hope is the creation of a highly individualized, relevant, timely preparation and training program in educational administration.

Their tri-dimensional competency model includes the following parameters:

1) Competencies (technical, conceptual, human); 2) levels (familiarity, understanding, application); 3) content and practice.

McIntyre, Kenneth E. (ed.). The Principalship in the 1970's. Bureau of Laboratory Schools Monograph No. 23, Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1971.

This article contains a collection of papers presented at University Council for Educational Administration Career Development Seminar.

Authors include: L. D. Haskew, Edwin M. Bridges, Conrad Briner, Lavern Cunningham, Michael Thomas, Jr., Cecil Mansfield and Kenneth McIntyre.

McKay, D. A. The Principal as Administrator. University of Alberta: 1968.

The author identifies two separate perspectives and a combination of the two. The first is the administrative process under which are subsummed seven components. Then he discusses six operational areas...school program, pupil personnel, staff personnel, school-community relations, physical facilities, and school management. The combination of process components and task areas gives the principal a way to identify administrative functions in these areas.

Mickish, Ginny. "Can Women Function as Successfully as Men in the Role of Elementary Principal?" Research Reports in Educational Administration, 2, No. 4. (Jan, 1970).

Whereas female elementary principals represent only about 31 percent of the elementary principals in the nation, female teachers represent 88 percent of all elementary school teachers. This document reviews the literature on male-female differences in the leadership and management roles of the elementary principalship.

Nicholson, Everett W. "The Performance of Principals in the Accountability Syndrome," NASSP Bulletin, 56 (March, 1972), pp. 94-102.

The connotations of accountability in education have widened, the author reports. From fiscal accountability added scrutiny has been directed toward performance of educational personnel. The author suggests principals take an offensive program by developing their own evaluative criteria.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. "Competency Based, Personalized and Field Centered Model of an Elementary Teacher Education Program," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 2 No. 3, (Spring, 1969), pp. 40-43.

The Comfield Model is an organization tested model designed to ferret out the dormant competencies in the individual teacher. This is perhaps one of the most important research projects that has been field tested and evaluated for effectiveness. It would be advisable to secure the base research instrument for this program since the article cited above is very short and fails to give a citation as regards parameters initial experience models and the final phase "evaluation model."

Piele, Phillip K. Annotated Bibliography on Educational Administrator Preparation Programs. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Administration, 1968.

This bibliography reviews a collection of significant literature (since 1962) describing or proposing programs for inservice or preservice preparation of educational administrators for public and private educational organizations at the elementary, secondary and higher educational levels. The 36 documents deal with such topics as the influence of the social sciences and the humanities, writing case study materials, and the use of simulation.

Shepardson, Richard D., "A Survey to Assess and Display the Arguments for and Against Developing Performance based Teacher Education Program, Journal of Teacher Education, 33 No. 2, (Summer,1972).

The article demonstrates how the Delphi technique can be utilized to enhance the decision-making process. Although the technique serves as an excellent vehicle to achieve open and critical examination of the pros and cons regarding a specific issue, in this bibliography the content is to display the advantages and disadvantages of performance based programs in teacher education.

Stiles, Lindley J. "Certification and Preparation of Educational Personnel in Massachusetts," Phi Delta Kappan. 50 (April, 1969) pp. 477-80.

Summarized in this article are recommendations made to the Massachusetts legislature (1969) about teacher certification. Key concepts are, (a) differentiated staffing (with separate licenses for interns, associate teachers, professionals, and specialists), (b) evaluation in terms of demonstrated knowledge and performance, (c) improved clinical practice, and (d) cooperation among educational groups.

Thomas, Donald. "Decentralization as a Management Tool." A paper presented at American Management Association Annual Conference and Exposition, August, 1971. ED 057 482.

This speech argues that effective management of schools requires the decentralization of management functions from the superintendent level to that of the building principal. The speaker notes that, for an educational administrator, survival is related to the ability to deal with conflict. According to the author, principals must become the major conflict managers, deal with conflict at its lowest level, and produce change that is of maximum benefit to those affected by that change.

University of Washington, College of Education. New Directions in Teacher Education. Seattle: The College, February, 1970. ED 645 547.

Described in this booklet are eight University of Washington teacher education projects in operation during the 1969-70 school year. They sought to develop and test various performance-based field experience approaches as well as a management system in which the University and cooperating school districts provided released time for selected school personnel to serve as manager.

Van Meter, Eddy J., and Marty M. Leftoff. "A Competency Based Training Package for Educational Building Administrators," Project Kansas 76, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas, Fall, 1972. (Mimeographed.)

This is a multi-purpose competency-based program which can be used for preservice, inservice, or self improvement.

Although developed for preservice preparation programs, this competency package can be used for inservice training of practitioners already on-the-job. Three levels of performance are provided for the competency objectives providee; resident stage, intern stage, and the practitioner stage. Twelve "Referent Topics" reflect the scope of responsibility in which an educational building administrator should demonstrate competency. Topics include:

1. Instructional Improvement
2. Curriculum Development
3. Student Services
4. Community Relations
5. District Orientation
6. Discipline Procedures

7. Fiscal Management
8. Personal Improvement
9. Legal monitoring
10. Staff Support
11. Planning and Development
12. Evaluation and Assessment.

Under each topic is subsummed: competency objectives, representative behaviors and suggested evaluation procedures. No effort has been made to develop new formats or nomenclature purposely to avoid elaborate clarification.

SECTION VI

HOW CAN COMPETENCIES BE ASSESSED?

There are available a variety of evaluation scales and instruments surveyed, collected, and displayed within publications included in this section. They reflect a broad range of purposes some related to competency statements and some not. Most are based on performance of administrative functions rather than on personal characteristics.

Dr. Dale Bolton further states that competency must be rated in light of the impact of situations on objectives desired, procedures used, and the results of these procedures. The development of good measures of process and product are necessary to determine what produced the results and to decide on future actions. The desire for common criteria for judging effectiveness therefore should be related to the administrator's situation. Dr. Roald Campbell sees the need for a set of criteria for functions defined in behavioral terms for evaluation of administrative performance. Campbell believes a national commission on administrative evaluation is one possible solution.

Work is underway at a number of universities and colleges where there is commitment to the competency concept to develop such evaluation. Models such as McCleary's and McIntyre's include levels of performance such as awareness, understanding, and application. Statements or criteria to assess evidence of performance as related to one of these levels need to be developed. See Appendix D for illustrative material on evaluation of administrator competency.

ANNOTATED SELECTED REFERENCES

Anderson, C. C., and Hunka, S. M. "Teacher Evaluation: Some Problems and a Proposal," *Harvard Educational Review*, 33 (Winter, 1963) pp. 74-95.

This article reviews research and represents an attempt to apply the psychology of learning and the techniques of multivariate statistical analysis to the problems of teacher evaluation. Experimental designs and procedures are suggested which provide a method of investigating a large source of variation...the evaluators themselves. A 124-item bibliography is included.

Bolton, Dale L. *Evaluating School Processes and Products: A Responsibility of School Principals*. University of Washington, May, 1972. (Mimeographed.)

The author provides a brief description of each of seven key futures of evaluating school processes and products, discusses the implications of the interrelationships, and suggests a means for managing information needed to evaluate a principal's effectiveness in this domain.

The author includes illustrative conceptual models and indicates that although the intent of the model is to evaluate an area of competence of a principal, modifications of this model could make it possible to use it for use with teachers and central office personnel.

Bradley, Ruth, and others. *Measuring Teacher Competence: Research Backgrounds and Current Practice*. Burlingame: California Teachers Association, 1967. ED 040 152

To provide a common criterion for the evaluation of teaching this booklet defines the idea of competence in terms of six areas. (A taxonomy of roles is appended). The process of developing a measurement instrument is outlined which provides enough flexibility to allow adaptation to local goals and philosophy.

Brown, Richard E. *A Review of Employee Evaluation Systems*. Personnel Report No. 634. Chicago, Illinois: Public Personnel Association (1313 East 60th Street, 6037), 1963.

Reviews published materials on personnel appraisal and describes and evaluates techniques of performance evaluation. Includes extensive bibliography on employee evaluation.

Campbell, Roald F. "The Evaluation of Administrative Performance." A paper presented at AASA Annual Convention. February, 1971.

The author discusses problems and possible solutions for

the implementation of administrator evaluation. He believes a set of criteria for functions defined in behavioral terms is necessary for evaluation of administrative performance. He believes a national commission on administrative evaluation may be one possible answer to this complex problem.

Croft Leadership Action Folio, Evaluating School Principals, Croft Publishing Co., 1969.

This issue is helpful to see the kinds of devices used by school districts across the country for evaluation of school principals. Types of evaluation devices reviewed include:

1. Instruments where self appraisal is optional
2. Instruments where evaluation is required by law
3. Instruments which include check lists in all areas of performance.

Deever, R. Merwin, Howard J. Demeke, and Raymond E. Wochner. The Evaluation of Teaching Competence, Tempe, Arizona: College of Education, Arizona State University, 1970.

A planned program for improving instruction; identifies 27 elements of competent teaching and establishes a procedure for recording evidences of these elements through observation of the teaching process in the classroom, and by interviewing the teacher regarding non-observable items.

Demeke, Howard J. Guidelines for Evaluation: The School Principal: Seven Areas of Competence. Arizona State University, University Bookstore, Tempe, Arizona: 1971.

The publication discusses the changing role of the school principal and points to the direction taken by competent principals. The seven areas of competence discussed are:

(1) Leader and Director of the Educational Program
(2) Coordinator of Guidance and Special Educational Services
(3) Member of the District and School Staff
(4) Link between the Community and the School
(5) Administrator of Personnel
(6) Member of the Profession of Educational Administration
(7) Director of Support Management

DeVaughn, J. Everette. A Manual for Developing Reasonable Objective, Nondiscriminatory Standards for Evaluating Administrator Performance. State College, Miss.: (Mississippi Educational Services Center, Mississippi State University. September, 1971.

Outlines purpose, scope, procedures, and assumptions in developing a program for evaluating administrative and supervisory personnel. Includes models for evaluation forms of two types: (1) performance standards oriented, and (2) job tasks oriented.

Educational Research Service, American Association of School Administrators and NEA Research Division. *Evaluating Administrative Performance*. ERS Circular No. 7, 1968. Washington, D.C.: November, 1968. Out of print. (Available on a loan basis from ERS.)

This item reviews and reports on 62 formalized evaluation programs of administrators. Basically formal systems were of three types:

(1) Those rating the individual on a scale in certain areas
(2) Those providing space only for the evaluator to make statements about the evaluatee's performance
(3) Those combining these two features

Samples are printed of all instruments received in the survey.

Educational Research Service, American Association of School Administrators and NEA Research Division. *The Evaluatee Evaluates the Evaluator*. ERS Circular No. 5, 1970. Washington, D. C.: August, 1970.

Describes procedures and reproduces forms used in systems which have a method whereby central office personnel, principals, and teachers are evaluated by their subordinates.

Educational Research Service, American Association of School Administrators and NEW Research Division. *Evaluation of School Administrative and Supervisory Personnel*. ERS Circular No. 5, 1964. Washington, D. C.: The Service, October, 1964. Out of print. (Available on a loan basis from ERS.)

Includes summaries of 50 programs of administrative evaluation and includes six sample evaluation forms.

Howsam, Robert B., "Teacher Evaluation, Facts and Folklore," The National Elementary School Principal, 17 (November, 1963), pp. 7-15.

The author discusses purposes, means, methods, and artistry in the evaluation of teachers. The author sees evaluation as a powerful device for improvement if used properly, and as a weapon if misused, to reduce quality or creativity to the least common denominator.

Popham, W. James. "Development of a Performance Test of Teaching Proficiency." Los Angeles: University of California, August, 1967. ED 013 242.

An instructional unit and tests for evaluating teachers by pupil growth were developed and field tested. Experienced and inexperienced teachers (N=38) were given instructional objectives, but were not restricted in teaching style. Insignificant differences between pupil growth produced by experienced and inexperienced teachers were attributed partly to all teachers' inexperience with teaching to objectives. Unit and tests are appended.

Stemnock, Suzanne K. Evaluating Administrative Performance. Educational Research Service Circular number 7. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Educational Research Service, 1968.

Sixty-two school systems report formalized evaluating procedures for administrators and supervisory personnel. Evaluation forms from eight districts are included.

Stemnock, Suzanne, K. Evaluating Teacher Performance. ERS Circular No. 3. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Educational Research Serv ice, 1969. ED 033 448.

This circular provides information on techniques currently (January, 1969) being used to evaluate teaching performance. Responses to a questionnaire by 213 school systems are tabulated and coded by enrollment size. Frequency of evaluation, evaluator, evaluation form and procedure, and appeal procedure are covered. Eleven representative forms are appended.

California Elementary School Administrators' Association. CESAA Reviews Evaluation Procedures for the Elementary School Administrator. Monograph No. 11. Burlingame, Calif.: the Association, 1958.

This book contains the standards of performance the CESAA adapted for itself from those formulated the previous year by both Secondary and Elementary Administrator Associations.

Behaviors and functions are listed under the following areas:

1) Human Relations
2) Administrative Skills

Professional Growth Instruments are described such as one using statements coupled with a rating device used in Arcadia Unified School District, California.

"The Development and Utilization of a Procedure for Appraising the Competency of Educational Administrative Students at George Peabody College for Teachers" Mic 59-1120.

The study developed and utilized a procedure for appraising competency in educational administration at George Peabody College for Teachers. The procedure was based upon a series of situational tests designed to require the student in educational administration competencies similar to those required by actual administrative tasks.

PERFORMANCE-BASED TEACHER CERTIFICATION

Activity by States

June 20, 1972

Information adapted from Robert A. Roth
Performance-Based Teacher Certification: A Survey of the States

PERFORMANCE-BASED TEACHER CERTIFICATION
Activity by States*

Law to Enforce	State Board Initiated Action	Task Force Studying	Action Toward Certification	Minimal Study	No Activity
	Alabama				
					Alaska
			Arizona		
				Arkansas	
California					
					Colorado
			Connecticut		
			Delaware		
			Florida		
				Georgia	
				Hawaii	
		Idaho			
		Illinois			
				Indiana	
					Iowa
					Kansas
					Kentucky
			Louisiana		
					Maine
				Maryland	
			Massachusetts		
	Michigan				
			Minnesota		
					Mississippi
					Missouri
					Montana
					Nebraska
				Nevada	
				New Hamp.	
			New Jersey		
					New Mexico
			New York		
			N. Carolina		
					N. Dakota
				Ohio	
					Oklahoma
			Oregon		
		Penn.			
					Rhode Is.
			S. Carolina		
			S. Dakota		

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*Information adapted from Robert A. Roth, Performance-Based Teacher Certification: A Survey of the States. Performance Evaluation Project, Bureau of Teacher Education, Trenton, New Jersey, June 20, 1972

Activity by States (continued)

	Law to Enforce	State Board Initiated Action	Task Force Studying	Action Toward Certification	Minimal Study	No Activity
						Tennessee
		Texas				
			Utah			
				Vermont		
					Virginia	
				Washington		
					W. Virginia	
				Wisconsin		
						Wyoming
otal	1	3	4	16	10	16

Appendix A

WHAT IS A COMPETENCY-BASED PROGRAM?

June 5, 1972

A COMPETENCY-BASED CURRICULUM MODEL FOR UNDERGRADUATE MEDICAL EDUCATION

Thomas C. Brown, Ph. D.
Morton A. Stenchever, M. D.
James E. Carter, M. D.*

The press brought about by societal reorientation regarding emphasis on delivery systems in the medical field and recent developments in educational theory has stimulated an effort on the part of medical school faculties in the area of curricular change (1, 2, 3). The forces present both within and without medical education indicate several assumptions that have been used to guide conceptualization of a competency-based curriculum model of which major aspects and applications are presented here. Assumptions about the nature of medical education and the process of medical education outlined below serve as a base to the competency-based curriculum model proposed here.

ASSUMPTIONS

Undergraduate medical education is an attempt by medical school faculties to relate the sciences underlying medicine to the competencies needed by the physician-in-training to care for their patients.

Entering medical students have, in previous education programs, developed a variety of proficiencies. These proficiencies provide a variety of entry knowledge and skill levels which make the group heterogenous rather than homogenous. Therefore, individualization of medical student learning is a desirable endeavor, especially if training time is to be reduced for capable students and if habits of independent, self-directed learning are to be emphasized.

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DEFINING COMPETENCY

A competency has been identified by McCleary as consisting of three parameters (4). The parameters are technical competencies, conceptual competencies, and human competencies. In addition, he has stated each competency consists of three levels which are familiarity levels, understanding levels, and application levels. An example of how competencies can be defined has been derived. Figure 2 is a nine-cell model for defining a competency for completing a pelvic examination.

While other points may be expressed and identified in the model cells, Figure 2. illustrates one of many possible ways about how a competency may be defined according to levels of competencies expected of students as evidence of their being able to do a pelvic examination. The advantage of defining competencies rather than writing behavioral objectives (5) is that often neglected human considerations are resolved. The human element, so important to situations involving interactions between people, is intensified in competency statements. While competency statements are broader, it may be that enough specificity is maintained through factoring, as shown in Figure 2., that purposes are clear enough to communicate instructional intent and yet include purposeful inclusion of human consideration.

PROCESS FOR LEARNING COMPETENCIES

Competency parameters have been identified by Brown in terms of the process and measurement domains (6). The process domain consists of one-way processes, two-way processes, and multi-way processes. The measurement domain consists of performance measures, problem-solving measures, and value-based measures.

Each cell of the nine shown in Figure 2. states what is to be done to achieve an intersect of a competency domain with a level domain of one identified competency. The "how" or possible learning experiences and measurement procedures can be designed using the model shown in Figure 3.

THE BASIC MODEL

Figure 1. is a process model of competency-based curriculum. Its design is characterized as follows:

1. Competencies are defined.
2. Students who possess a competency are evaluated and proceed to other competencies.
3. Students who do not possess the competency participate in individual or group learning activities designed to enhance their learning of the competency.
4. Students are evaluated, and, if the competency has not been achieved, a diagnosis of the student yields a revised learning strategy for that student.
5. Students continue in the process until minimal competency levels are achieved.

Figure 1. -- A Competency-Based Curriculum Model

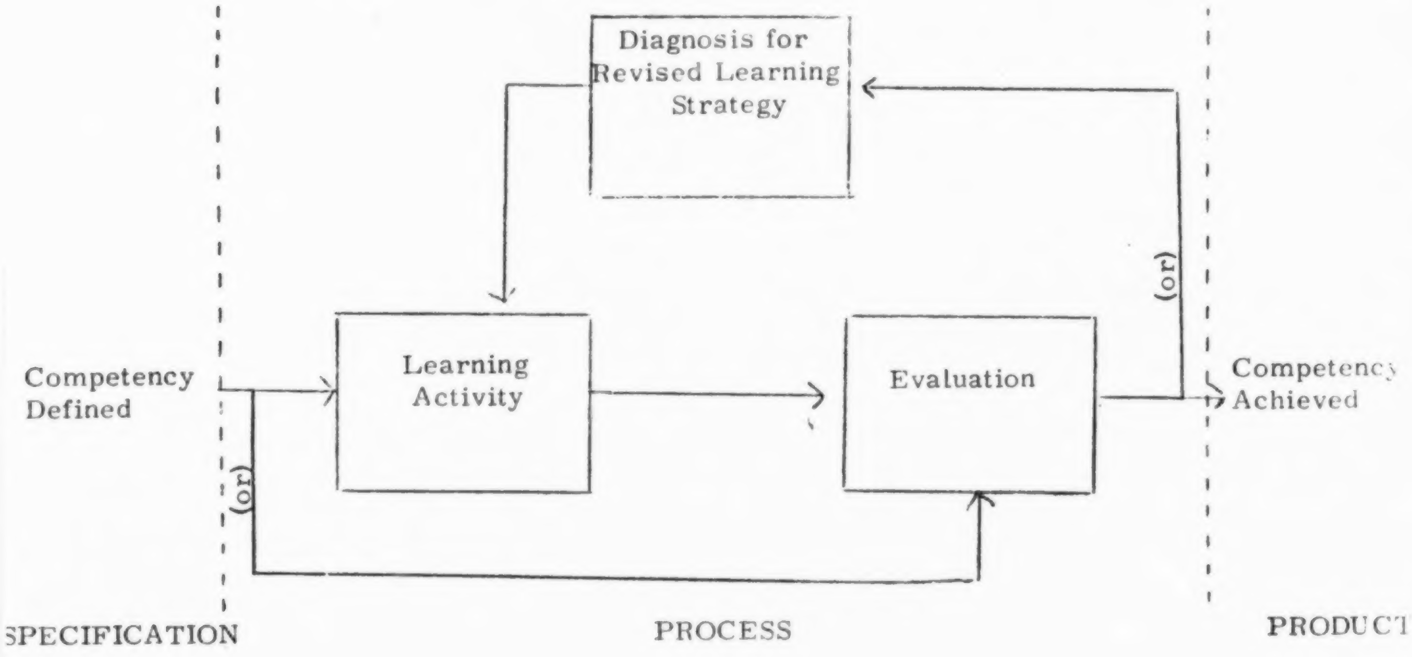
Diagnosis for Revised Learning Strategy
(or)
Competency Defined
Learning Activity
Evaluation
Competenc
Achieved
(or)
SPECIFICATION
PROCESS
PRODUCT

Figure 2. -- Example of Competency Definition for Completing a Female Pelvic Examination

LEVEL DOMAIN

COMPETENCY DOMAIN	Familiarity Level	Understanding Level	Application Level
Technical	Identify speculum and speculum sizes. Identify purposes of differing speculum sizes. Describe sequence and method of visualized inspection of pelvic examination, vulva, insertion of speculum, visualization of cervix and vaginal walls. Describe sequence and method of palpation of pelvis. (First Cell)	Specify advantages of speculum for viewing purposes. Specify routine to follow in bi-manual examination. Specify information obtained on visualization of pelvic examination. Specify information gained by palpation of pelvic exam. (Second Cell)	Insert and remove speculum in "Gynny" Model. Do bi-manual examination on "Gynny" Model and vulval organs. Palpate vulva, cervix, uterus, tubes and ovaries. Do pap smear on "Gynny" Model. Students write-up results. (Third Cell)
Conceptual	State procedures for insertion of speculum and list anatomical pelvic structures. Specify times pelvic examination appropriate in females. Identify and define structure, locations, and mobility of cervix, uterus, and ovaries. (Fourth Cell)	Specify normal structures and signs of pathologies according to age groupings. Specify procedures for collecting pap smear. Describe organ sizes and shapes, functions, and relationships. (Fifth Cell)	Recognize and state major anatomical locations and pathology found in "Gynny" Model using speculum and bi-manual examination. Students write-up problem list. (Sixth Cell)
Human	State setting for completing pelvic examinations. State differing attitudes of patients to pelvic examinations based on age, societal background, and psychological indications. (Seventh Cell)	Specify patient interview technique to reduce anxiety. Specify reason for nurse being in room during pelvic examination. (Eighth Cell)	Do pelvic examination on patients. Establish setting for pelvic examination. Do pap smear. Do bi-manual examination. Describe history and physical findings from data. Deliniate problem list and plan for solution of each problem. (Ninth Cell)

Figure 3. -- Example of Process and Evaluation Analysis for Learning Competency in Completing a Female Pelvic Examination

PROCESS DOMAIN

MEASUREMENT DOMAIN

	One-Way Process	Two-Way Process	Multi-Way Process
Performance Measures	Lectures and/or use of audio-visual aids/ or assigned readings for content in cells one and four, Figure 2. True-false, yes-no, multiple choice, matching type questions appropriate. (First Cell)	Directive small group, question-answer session or use of programmed materials for cells two and five of Figure 2. Measures specified in cell one of this figure appropriate. (Second Cell)	Not Applicable (Third Cell)
Problem-Solving Measures	Case-study readings or lectures for content in cell seven, Figure 2. Branching-type programmed materials and essay questions appropriate for measurement. (Fourth Cell)	Structured small-group sessions or tutorials for content in cell eight, Figure 2. Oral, non-recorded situational questioning by faculty appropriate. (Fifth Cell)	Small group practice for content in cells three and six. Faculty complete rating form of student performance and critique student write-ups for cells three, six, and nine. (Sixth Cell)
Value-Based Measures	Not Applicable (Seventh Cell)	Not Applicable (Eighth Cell)	Seminar, non-directive approach, on content. Open discussions of what was learned. Administer student evaluation form of program, including open-ended response questions to measure final attitudes toward content and process. (Ninth Cell)

Figure 3., while not an exhaustive description, lists and identifies ways and means whereby processes for learning a competency and possible means for measuring student performance can be derived. While cells from Figure 2. were not exactly interfaced with cells from Figure 3., the analysis was a result of avoiding excessive testing of students due to time factors involved. Unacceptable performances of a student on a measurement parameter would necessitate further faculty-student interaction where a diagnosis of what happened should result in a revision of learning strategies for the student in order for him to successfully achieve minimal levels of performance. It should be noted that students who presented some evidence for having already mastered the competency could ask to be allowed to demonstrate proficiency, thereby eliminating those from learning activities who did not need such experiences. That process was shown in Figure 1.

EXAMPLE OF FACULTY USE OF MODELS

Professors of obstetrics and gynecology wish to devise their own unique approach to the teaching/learning process. However, an example of the sequencial thought and activity actions used to derive concepts presented above might be useful to those wishing to use a competency-based curriculum model for other topics.

Once a desirable competency has been selected, the technical, conceptual, and human competencies should be stated at the application levels. For example, the reason for completing a female pelvic examination is to obtain pap smears and identify normal or abnormal findings. Therefore, one should begin with cell nine of Figure 2. which represents the terminal point of the whole identifying process. From such derived information, conceptual and technical applications can be quickly decided. After cells three, six, and nine have been identified, remaining cells of Figure 2. can be derived using application levels and competencies as referent points. The process assures the professor of basing his specifications for student learning on the ultimate outcome desired.

The process and evaluation analysis is best completed using a similar approach. Most professors place emphasis in developing appropriate, professional attitudes of students toward the human aspects of practicing medicine. As Figure 3. shows, value-based measures are best used in multi-way process situations, such as seminars. The first use of the process/evaluation model occurred in cell nine. Two kinds of evaluation are appropriately implied here; assessment of the students' reaction to the value of the content learned and student reaction to the process used to instruct him. Such feedback to professors points out to him how well he has communicated the relevance of content and how well he has met the individual learning styles from the students point-of-view. Both value-based and problem-solving measures (see cell six of Figure 3.) appear to require an open environmental setting which is best created using multi-way processes such as a seminar format. One and two-way processes do not seem appropriate for value-based measures. This may account in part for periodic "pannings" faculty often receive for lectures.

Cells two and five were derived from the statements made in cells six and nine of Figure 3. Remaining cells which emphasized lectures, readings, etc., and objective testing procedures to meet familiarity, some conceptual, and human requirement specified in cells one, four, and seven of Figure 2., appeared to be appropriate.

The use of models shown in Figure 2. and 3. reflected an orientation for centering learning on application skills to be learned and value-based measures used to determine student reactions. Entry into each model at a different point would most likely emphasize other intersects if an individual professor disagreed with biases evident here.

DISCUSSION

The preceding example inferred that some individuals would probably proceed directly to evaluation in order to demonstrate achievement of a competency. It would be likely that some students would need more, or less, time to achieve a given competency. Such a situation would require that students be allowed to move from competency to competency at variable rates. As such, a competency-based curriculum would require individualization of learning programs. In addition, as there are in all likelihood prerequisites for certain competencies, i.e., achieving one competency requires demonstrated competence in another more elementary competency, each student, based on his past achievements, would flow through a competency program uniquely.

It is fully recognized that such would require flexible, probably modular scheduling approaches to achieve some semblance of an organizational structure in learning programs. Concurrently, it is anticipated that the movement toward a competency-based curriculum would, at least initially, require more, not less, faculty time. Herein lies the major roadblock to individualizing educational programs in medical settings.

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"Administering and Improving the Instructional Program," by Kenneth McIntyre, which appears on the following pages was developed as a part of a larger project involving leaders in the University Council for Educational Administration and leaders in the Atlanta Public School system. The paper, along with seven additional ones, will be published sometime in 1973 under the title, Performance Criteria for Principals: Concepts and Instruments. It will be edited by Jack Culbertson, Curtis Hensen and Ruel Morrison.

ADMINISTERING AND IMPROVING THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM 1/

[illegible]

Harold,
Here are the
papers I promised.
K.U.E.

Kenneth E. McIntyre
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas

It is assumed that instruction is a central sub-system of the total educational system, and that administering and improving the instructional program is an important domain of responsibility for school principals. Although one occasionally encounters arguments to the contrary, this writer has found that such arguments usually consist of the construction of a straw man ("The principal can't be expected to be an expert supervisor and spend half of his time sitting in the back of classrooms"), followed by the demolition of said straw man. The principal has a much different role from that of the instructional supervisor, and both roles are important.

To contend that administering and improving the instructional program is of prime importance is not to argue that principals in general are conspicuously effective in this aspect of the position, nor to hold that teachers typically see their principals to be valuable sources of supervisory assistance. The studies are all too clear on this point. 2/ On the other hand, whatever shortcomings there have been in the performance of principals -- and in their preparation programs and in-service training -- one need not accept the status quo as immutable. Presumably teachers would be more acceptable of principals' instructional improvement roles if the principals were more

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1/ In preparing this paper I had the assistance of several of my colleagues at the University of Texas at Austin. I am particularly indebted to Professor Ben M. Harris, whose insights were substantial and invaluable.

2/ For example, see John C. Croft, "The Principal as Supervisor: Some Descriptive Findings and Important Questions," Journal of Educational Administration, 6(2), Oct., 1968, pp. 162-172; Wendell William Wolfe, A Study of the Laboratory Approach to In-Service Development Programs for School Administrators and Supervisors. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Austin: The University of Texas, 1965, pp. 136-154; Harry Jesse Gardner, A Re-Study of a Laboratory Approach to In-Service Development Programs for School Administrators and Supervisors. Unpublished Master's thesis. Austin: The University of Texas, 1968, pp. 57-73.

competent. This seems to be the case in the relatively few instances in which principals are perceived to be especially helpful. There can be no doubt that superintendents, and principals themselves, are convinced that principals should be "instructional leaders" -- whatever that term means.

The primary purpose of this paper is to assist school principals in the development of competencies in the administration and improvement of the instructional program in their school units. By setting forth the competencies that appear to be required for effective performance in this domain, and by citing some illustrative examples of behavior indicative of such performance, the writer hopes to provide guidelines for skill development. Furthermore, it is perhaps not unreasonable to hope that these guidelines will result in improvements in preparation programs, as universities test their offerings and products against the contents of this paper.

The writer holds that there are certain characteristics that should be found in any sound procedure for evaluating the performance of school principals, in the instruction domain as well as in others. These characteristics are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

1. School principals should participate in setting up the evaluation system itself and in the operation of the system once it is established. This means that principals should have something to say about the goals of the program and the criteria by which their performance is to be evaluated. Once the system is operational, each principal should participate in the

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process of stating his performance objectives, determining how progress toward meeting those objectives is to be measured, analyzing and interpreting data, applying findings in order to correct deficiencies, and planning next steps. In this way the needs of the individual and the needs of the organization can be served, which is seldom the case with traditional evaluation systems.

2. No system for evaluating the performance of school principals (or anyone else) is any stronger than the information base that supports it. Unsupported judgments, which have constituted the core of most personnel evaluation efforts in schools up to the present time, are of little or no value to the evaluatee or to the organization in which he works. One essential characteristic of an effective evaluation system, then, is that relevant behaviors are amply described in meaningful categories, prerequisite to the making of judgments about the individual's performance.

3. An effective evaluation system should concentrate on a relatively few highly important categories of performance, rather than dissipate time and energy on an unmanageable number of meaningless judgments. Goals at every operational level of the organization should be clearly set forth and articulated, and those expectations that are common to all incumbents in a given position category should be unambiguously stated. Although many different competencies are required in any school principalship, the position taken here is that only a small number are crucial to all principalships -- or even all principalships of a given type or level -- in a school district at

any given time. To those few crucial competencies should be added one or more that are specific to the individual, the time, or the situation.

4. Any system for evaluating school principals' work should be capable of serving both of these major purposes: the support of certain types of administrative decisions -- such as reemployment, reassignment, promotion, or dismissal -- and the in-service improvement of the principals' performances. Some devices, such as self-ratings, are quite appropriate as part of the improvement process but not for administrative decision making. Much of the generated data can serve both purposes, but substantially different procedures should be followed in the use made of the data.

5. Any respectable evaluation system requires resources and capabilities that are not presently available in most school districts. One or more knowledgeable and skilled persons must be on hand to provide leadership and to assist in the development of school district and school unit goals, and to assist principals in the development of goal-related objectives, the measurement of progress toward meeting those objectives, and the deciding of how to use information for improvement purposes. Few school districts have trained personnel on hand to meet this kind of need; as a result, funds must be made available to support the necessary personnel, including the training necessary to develop the essential competencies.

With these general guidelines in mind, the writer presents specific suggestions for evaluating the performance of school principals in the domain which includes administering and improving the instructional program (Exhibit 1). The terms administering and improving are used deliberately, to emphasize the point that maintenance and change are both necessary functions in an instructional program. Much of a principal's time will of necessity be spent in certain task areas turning out the products of instruction -- providing staff, space, materials, and the like -- so that teaching can be done with a minimum of confusion. Teachers value this kind of assistance from a school principal, as well they might. But improving the instructional program means changing it, which is an inherently disruptive but necessary process if a school is to be effective over any extended period of time. An effective principal is one who does both jobs well: he helps teachers by providing the environment and tools for the stimulation of learning, and he does those things which tend to bring about planned change and to prevent harmful unplanned change.

Eight key responsibilities of the school principal in the instruction domain are identified. These key responsibilities are broad functional categories, all of which are necessary for carrying on an effective instructional program. It is assumed that the school principal is responsible for getting them accomplished, but not that he will work alone in doing so; in fact, in all likelihood the principal of the future will have to be decreasingly directive in his relationships with teachers and increasingly adept at drawing the best out of others in a collegial type of problem solving mode. He will delegate, coordinate, stimulate -- whatever is necessary to get the job done -- but these are the categories of work that need to be performed, and we look to the principal to see to it that each key responsibility is met.

Within each key responsibility area there are two or more competencies, which are defined here as the smallest unit of behavior that, if employed at a quality level, will make a discernible difference in the fulfillment of the responsibility. More specific behavioral manifestations of each competency are suggested, but these are illustrative only, and they would not, standing alone, satisfy the requirements of evidence of competency.

Some further comments about these behavioral manifestations of competency, called illustrative indicators, might be helpful. They are stated in process rather than product terms, although most of them could have been stated as products with only slight alterations in wording. The reasons that processes are suggested, even while granting that product does not necessarily follow process as the night the day, are two-fold: (1) since the major purpose of the evaluation is to assist school principals to improve their performance, the only available handle for accomplishing this is to influence what the principal does; and (2) what might appear to be the products of principals' leadership behavior might be affected by many other concurrent forces. To be sure, in the long run one must be concerned with the effects of processes on outcomes, and relevant evidence pertaining to

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the outcomes of performance should be sought and taken into account. For example, Illustrative Indicator 23b is a laboratory session on teacher-made tests, based on an analysis of the teachers' examinations using the Teacher Question Inventory. Two processes are in evidence here: the study of the examinations and the laboratory session that followed. The principal in this case should want to continue to collect evidence on the kinds of questions teachers use in their examinations to discover whether any changes are being made, whatever the causes might be, as suggested in Illustrative Indicator 28a. In any case, the immediate concern of the evaluator of the principal's performance is with what the principal does.

It will be observed that the illustrative indicators are stated in past tense, although they could have been stated in present tense as well. The reason for stating each example as something the principal has done (or is doing) is to emphasize the point that sound evaluation must be based on the principal's actual behavior and not on something he is thinking about doing or on some trait he is presumed to possess.

The point was made previously that high-priority expectations must be set periodically for certain broad categories of positions in the school district (elementary principals and secondary principals, for example) and for individuals in each particular situation. Not only do people, times, and situations vary, but role differentiation by positional categories must be provided if a school district is to make the most of its always limited resources. In order to get a "feel" for the priorities that might be set by practitioners, several school principals and instructional supervisors in the Houston Public Schools were asked to do a quartile ranking of the 32 competencies presented in this paper.* The instructions were: "For each of the following competencies, indicate your estimate of its importance with regard to the effective performance of your job as an instructional leader during the next school year." Although generalizing from this limited sample would be hazardous, the results indicated that for this group (24 elementary and 11 secondary principals and 14 supervisors) there are some interesting commonalities and differences as a function of the position held. The following table shows the ten highest-ranking competencies for each of the three groups:

(Numbers refer to competencies, Exhibit 1)

Rank	Elementary Principals	Secondary Principals	Instructional Supervisors
1	6	1	28
2	1	2	3
3	24	19	14
4	7	23	1
5	2	26	13
6	26	24	12
7	19	29	23
8	3	20	24
9	20	22	16
10	21	21	6 & 15 (tie)

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*Competencies 23 through 27 were revised slightly since they were presented to the Houston group, but they appear in Exhibit 1 substantially as they were stated at that time.

Only two competencies (No.'s 1 and 24) were in the top ten for all three groups. Several competencies (No.'s 28, 14, 13, 12, 16, and 15) were in the top ten for supervisors only; one (No. 7) was in the top ten for elementary principals only; and two (No.'s 29 and 22) were in the top ten for secondary principals only. Five were in the high-ranking group for both elementary and secondary principals but not for supervisors (No.'s 2, 19, 20, 21, and 26). And several were not in the top ten of any of the three groups' rankings.

The point in presenting these findings is not to argue that the method used in soliciting the opinions of the Houston group is an advocated procedure for arriving at a consensus for determining roles; in fact, such a procedure would be far too limited and superficial for such a purpose. The findings do suggest the hypothesis, however, that the administrative or supervisory position that one holds does influence his perceptions of the responsibilities that are most important. The contention here is that role differentiation is indeed important and should be accomplished in some deliberate and defensible manner. Efforts should be made to eliminate undesirable gaps and overlaps, and energies can then be concentrated on the competencies that really count for a given position at that time, and individualization by personal and situational differences can then be added to complete the evaluation target for the individual principal. Early in each school year he can meet with an evaluator from the central office to review the goals and expectations held by the school district for the position, add goals that are unique to the individual, and proceed to state specific objectives for the school year. Many of the illustrative indicators, given in Exhibit 1 as examples of the type of behavior that could be cited after the fact to suggest competency, could be stated as objectives; for example, a principal could state as objectives: "to initiate a study of diagnostic tests . . ." (No. 1a), "to develop a modular schedule . . ." (No. 10b), "to organize a 'scrambled' period . . ." (No. 11a), etc. Periodically during the school year the principal and evaluator should get together to review progress and feed back the results of formative evaluation into the system. Objectives that are not reached at the end of the school year can be abandoned, revised, or carried over to the next year. See Exhibit 2 for a suggested form.

For the purpose of making certain formal judgments about the principal, the concrete evidence of performance would be much the same as for the purpose of helping him to improve. The major differences would be that for strictly judgment-making purposes self-evaluation would probably not be appropriate, the results of others' evaluative judgments would probably not be revealed to the principal except in crisis situations (since such procedures are among the major causes of leniency error), and the evaluating would probably be infrequent rather than continuous. The format for this type of activity might simply be as shown in Exhibit 3, in which the crucial competencies are stated in the column at the left, followed by a listing of specific evidences (more fully backed up in the principal's personnel folder) or a mark indicating "no evidence," followed by some sort of judgment about the performance. Obviously, if there is no evidence concerning a given competency, there should be no judgment about it.

One final suggestion is in order. The implications of a process such as the one proposed here could be so staggering as to immobilize even the best-intentioned administrator, or even worse, a realization of what good evaluation and on-the-job training absolutely require might cause a retreat to the traditional ratings-based-on-hunches approach. It is extremely doubtful that any school system can, in one triumphant stroke, adopt and operate a complete evaluation system for even this one domain of the school principalship. How much better it would be to spend perhaps a year getting the necessary commitments, determining needs, setting goals, and training people to do the job -- and then starting modestly and enthusiastically with some significant but manageable part of the job. The confidence that grows out of the attainment of limited but substantial objectives in the beginning can later support "going for broke" with much greater likelihood of success.

Exhibit 1

ADMINISTERING AND IMPROVING THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM: KEY RESPONSIBILITIES, COMPETENCIES, AND ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS

Key Responsibility I: The principal develops [1] school unit goals and objectives to guide instruction

Competency No. 1: The principal relates needs of students to school system goals and legal requirements

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal initiated a study of diagnostic tests in order to select appropriate tests to identify specific needs of individual students

(b) The principal stimulated the guidance and counseling staff to conduct a survey of needs as perceived by the students

(c) The principal recommended a modification in school district goal X to accommodate a need of many students as revealed in a study of mental health problems

(d) The principal took action to correct a deficiency in meeting curriculum requirement X of the State Department of Education

Competency No. 2: The principal defines goals and objectives that are unique to the school unit

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal appointed a committee charged with the responsibility of making an annual study of school unit goals and objectives and recommending changes to the faculty

(b) The principal compared demographic data pertaining to the school district as a whole with data for the school unit

Competency No. 3: The principal guides the development of instructional units to implement unique goals and objectives

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1/ The reader is again reminded that the principal is perceived to be a leader in the discharge of the responsibilities listed here, and not a lone wolf. Although each statement begins with "the principal...," since it is the principal whose performance is being evaluated, it is assumed that an effective principal will work with teachers and others in a supportive, non-directive mode.

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal assigned to a curriculum committee the task of developing an instructional unit to deal with mental health problems (as revealed in 1c above)

(b) The principal appointed a task force to develop instructional units on Negro contributions to American culture (as revealed in 1b above)

Competency No. 4: The principal articulates goals and objectives for sub-units within the school

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal required each department in the school to state its goals and to specify performance objectives under each goal

(b) The principal set up an interdepartmental committee to study goals and objectives (as stated in 4a above) and to made appropriate suggestions to eliminate gaps, overlapping, and problems related to sequence

Key Responsibility II: The principal allocates staff personnel to accomplish instructional goals

Competency No. 5: The principal defines job requirements for each position in terms of instructional processes

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal initiated a study of the effectiveness of various instructional processes in producing each of several specified outcomes

(b) The principal interviewed two authorities on learning to discover the relationships between maturity and capacity to learn

Competency No. 6: The principal assists in the recruitment and selection of personnel for instructional responsibilities

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal submitted job specifications (as indicated in 5a and 5b above) for three vacancies that existed on his faculty

(b) The principal interviewed seven candidates for a position in his school to get evidence that they met all of the stated criteria (as indicated in 6a above)

Competency No. 7: The principal assigns or reassigns instructional staff to optimize conditions for learning

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal provided tangible evidence of having matched individuals' competencies with specific job requirements (as stated in 6a above) in the assignment of three teachers

(b) The principal reassigned a teacher to a position as chairman of the instructional media production team on a basis of skills she had acquired in a summer institute

Competency No. 8: The principal recommends staff members for re-employment, promotion, or dismissal

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal recommended the dismissal of a teacher and supported the recommendation with a written analysis of the teacher's performance, over a period of three years with substantial supervisory assistance, as revealed in written records of classroom observations using suitable guides, analyses of students' test performances, and complaints from parents

(b) The principal justified the recommendation for reemployment of each teacher with written evidence of competence in the accomplishment of performance objectives

Key Responsibility III: The principal allocates time and space to accomplish instructional goals

Competency No. 9: The principal inventories the changing needs for time and space for various instructional purposes

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal initiated the schedule-building process with a faculty discussion of the time and space implications of the school's goals and objectives

(b) The principal worked with each departmental chairman to determine whether new programs would require new allocations of time or space

Competency No. 10: The principal allocates time and space to various instructional purposes

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal developed a class schedule that was unique to the school, reflecting the school's unique goals and objectives in four specific ways

(b) The principal developed a modular schedule that accommodated the special needs of each sub-unit in specified ways

Competency No. 11: The principal assigns students to appropriate spaces and time units for instruction

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal organized a "scrambled" period one hour each week, during which time groups of students from various grade levels received instruction to meet specifically diagnosed needs

(b) The principal devised a plan whereby new students would be assigned to homerooms with designated "buddies"

(c) The principal changed the class section assignments of thirteen students during the semester, upon evidence that they would perform better in different sections

Key Responsibility IV: The principal develops and utilizes materials, equipment, and facilities to accomplish instructional goals

Competency No. 12: The principal inventories the changing needs for materials, equipment, and facilities to accomplish instructional goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal established a system for developing the annual budget for materials, equipment, and facilities by having each sub-unit justify its requests in terms of expected outcomes of instruction

(b) The principal studied the results of standardized achievement tests and wrote an analysis of evident needs for instructional materials based on the test results

Competency No. 13: The principal allocates materials, equipment, and facilities to accomplish instructional goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal presented a request for the purchase of a portable videotape recorder to be used in a proposed project aimed at helping teachers to analyze their own and others' teaching behavior

(b) The principal, because of disappointing student performances in reading comprehension in the primary grades (as revealed in 12b above), ordered five extra supplementary books per pupil for next year

Competency No. 14: The principal directs the identification and selection of needed materials, equipment, and facilities for instruction

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal asked each grade-level chairman to work with her group to identify and recommend for selection those materials best suited to the stated goals and objectives of the grade

(b) The principal charged the Library Committee with responsibility for reflecting school goals and objectives in the selection of library books and other instructional materials

Competency No. 15: The principal coordinates the redesigning of instructional facilities to accomplish instructional goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal wrote specifications for the remodeling of the cafetorium so that it could be used more effectively as a night school learning center

(b) The principal worked with a graduate student in a study of the utilization of the language laboratory, and recommended several specific actions as a result of the study

Competency No. 16: The principal assists in the development or modification of instructional materials that are not available commercially

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal assigned an administrative intern the task of setting up a system for locating, assembling, organizing, and distributing non-commercial instructional materials

(b) The principal organized a series of in-service training sessions on the production of instructional materials

Key Responsibility V: The principal coordinates supporting non-instructional services to accomplish instructional goals

Competency No. 17: The principal inventories the changing needs for non-instructional services in order to accomplish instructional goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal worked with a group of graduate students in conducting case studies of five "problem" students, to determine possible relationships between their learning difficulties and their health and eating habits

(b) The principal asked the PTA to appoint an advisory committee to make a study of possible hazards to safety and other impediments to learning in and around the school and to make recommendations

Competency No. 18: The principal organizes and coordinates the non-instructional services to optimize the accomplishment of instructional goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal changed the bus schedule so that students could participate in late-afternoon activities

(b) The principal organized a program of faculty-student lunches at which small groups would carry their trays to vacant classrooms and hold informal discussions during an extended lunch period

Key Responsibility VI: The principal develops school-community relations to accomplish instructional goals

Competency No. 19: The principal establishes communication with the school constituency for the purpose of assessing needs and setting broad instructional goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal organized an opinion survey, one section of which dealt with perceived shortcomings in the school program

(b) The principal wrote to business leaders in the community, asking them to project their employment needs for high school graduates for the next five years

Competency No. 20: The principal explains school and school district instructional policies and procedures and reports instructional problems and achievements to the school constituency

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal explained school problems and achievements to seven lay groups in the community during the first semester

(b) The principal wrote a column for the local newspaper each week dealing with some aspect of the school program

Competency No. 21: The principal provides an adequate system for reporting students' performances to parents, prospective employers, higher educational institutions, and others

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal organized a study of the school's report cards, resulting in the addition of criterion-referenced measures

(b) The principal set up a schedule of teacher-parent interviews dealing with the accomplishments of students

Competency No. 22: The principal communicates to the professional staff at school and district levels the feelings and desires of the school constituency

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal prepared a written report of community opinions concerning the school program (as revealed in 19a above) and sent a copy to each faculty member

(b) The principal called a meeting of the faculty for the purpose of discussing means of preparing students for projected local employment opportunities (as revealed in 19b above)

Key Responsibility VII: The principal develops in-service training programs to improve instruction

Competency No. 23: The principal plans in-service training programs for teachers by relating performance data to school goals

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal organized a one-day in-service training program in which small groups of teachers were guided into various specific activities on a basis of knowledge deficiencies as revealed in a pre-test on different aspects of learning theory

(b) The principal conducted a laboratory session on teacher-made tests as a result of a study of the faculty's semester examinations, using the Teacher Question Inventory

Competency No. 24: The principal guides individual teachers toward selective participation in in-service training activities

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal held an interview with each teacher during September for the purpose of co-operatively setting goals for the school year

(b) The principal assisted a teacher in selecting appropriate courses to take toward a master's degree, based on an analysis of class-room observation records over a period of one year

(c) The principal used the Mager-Pipe model in analyzing the performance problems of six teachers

Competency No. 25: The principal leads in-service training sessions for teachers

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal organized and led a group of teachers in a visit to a demonstration school

(b) The principal asked the counselor to keep a record of various aspects of group participation at each faculty discussion, and this record served as the basis for one in-service session on group processes

(c) The principal conducted a laboratory training session for teachers (as in 23b above)

Competency No. 26: The principal organizes and coordinates in-service training programs so as to make maximally effective use of personnel, time, materials, space, and money

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal used Instrument 6p-3, Planning Worksheet for In-Service Sessions, in planning a summer workshop

(b) The principal surveyed in-service training offerings available through the central office, the local colleges, and the regional education service center and coordinated these offerings with the program in his building

Competency No. 27: The principal trains other members of the professional staff to assume leadership roles in the in-service program

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal worked with department chairmen in a training program on classroom observation techniques

(b) The principal conducted training sessions for faculty team leaders in techniques for leading team planning sessions

Competency No. 28: The principal assesses the effectiveness of in-service training activities and programs

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal followed up the laboratory session on teacher-made tests (see 23b above) with an analysis of the teachers' next semester examinations

(b) The principal met with each teacher in November or December to check on progress made toward reaching goals set in September (see 24a above)

Key Responsibility VIII: The principal assesses the needs of the school unit and evaluates the processes and products of instruction in order to improve instruction

Competency No. 29: The principal collects, organizes, analyzes, and interprets data concerning the performance of teachers

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal used the Comprehensive Observation Guide with every first-year teacher at least three times during the school year

(b) The principal initiated a project by a university supervision class, in which the class visited a random sample of the teachers' classrooms, using the Comprehensive Observation Guide, and prepared a profile of the results for the faculty as a whole

Competency No. 30: The principal collects, organizes, analyzes, and interprets data concerning other-than-teacher influences on learning

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal suggested to the Modern Problems class that it conduct a study of the community and its other-than-school opportunities for learning and report the results to the faculty and the students

(b) The principal initiated a study of peer preferences among students and used the results for planning and scheduling purposes

Competency No. 31: The principal collects, organizes, analyzes, and interprets data concerning the performance of students

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal made a systematic study of student discipline referrals, their causes, and the teachers involved, and used the results in planning constructive programs with teachers to deal with the causes

(b) The principal enrolled in a Saturday course at the university, in which he analyzed his students' performances on a standardized achievement test as a class project

Competency No. 32: The principal collects, organizes, analyzes, and interprets data concerning former students

Illustrative Indicators: (a) The principal made a follow-up study of the employment record of last year's graduates and discussed the results with the faculty

(b) The principal used the performance of the students who had gone from his elementary school to junior high school the past four years as the basis for a faculty study of possible modifications of the curriculum

Exhibit 2

SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' IN-SERVICE GROWTH AGREEMENT

Name of Principal ________________________________ Position __________

Assignment (school, project, etc.) ______________________ Date __________

High Priority Competencies	Objectives for School Year 197 -197
No.	
No.	
No.	
No.	
No.	
No.	

______________________ Signature of Evaluatee

__________ Date

______________________ Signature of Evaluator

__________ Date

Exhibit 3

SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE CONCERNING PRINCIPALS' PERFORMANCES IN HIGH PRIORITY COMPETENCY AREAS

____
Name of Principal

____
School Year

Competency	Tangible Evidence (Either state evidence or check "no evidence" and proceed to the next competency)
No.	No evidence___
No.	No evidence___
No.	No evidence___
No.	No evidence___

Judgment of Performance*				
A	B	C	D	E

* A - Completely unsatisfactory; B - Needs much improvement; C - Needs some improvement; D - Satisfactory but not outstanding; E - Outstanding and exemplary

______________________________ ____________
Signature of Evaluator Date

Competency Development and the Methodology of College Teaching: A Model and Proposal

Lloyd E. McCleary and Kenneth McIntyre

This article is an attempt by the authors to assist professors of school administration in the planning of their instructional activities. Simply stated, its purpose is to present a planning framework by which the type and level of learning desired can be matched with the most appropriate, feasible, and effective processes for attaining that learning. Before presenting our model, a few preliminary statements might be in order.

Development of rational approaches to curriculum design has met with serious difficulties over such issues as content versus process emphasis, prescriptive versus discovery (or other type) learner involvement, learner behavioral versus teacher objectives, and degree of specificity of curricular prescription (from "teacher free" lesson plans to open-ended "resource" units).

Despite the movement toward highly specific, teacher-free learning packages and the use of behavioral objectives, the evidence is not clear-cut relative to any issue within the curriculum concerns noted above. Major difficulties arise from lack of careful definition of the variables entering into the teaching situation, problems due to intervening variables, and the lack of valid research and evaluation designs.

In spite of the difficulties noted above, certain assumptions seem to be well substantiated:

1. Learning is effective when the things to be learned are clearly specified; when the learner understands what is to be accomplished and accepts it as reasonable and worthwhile; when the prerequisite knowledge and skills are known and the learner possesses them or can attain them with reasonable effort; and when the level of performance of what is to be learned is understood by learner and teacher.

2. Teaching is effective when content (technical skills, conceptual understanding and/or human factors) is identified and inter-related so that the elements needed to achieve a given level of performance are known; when content is ordered into a "continuum" that carries the learner as far as necessary along a sequence of experience (from familiarity to understanding to application.); when the content and process is ordered so that each learner can progress along the continuum at his own rate (individualization); and when the methods of instruction (processes) are appropriate to the nature of what is to be learned (content) and to the level of achievement desired.

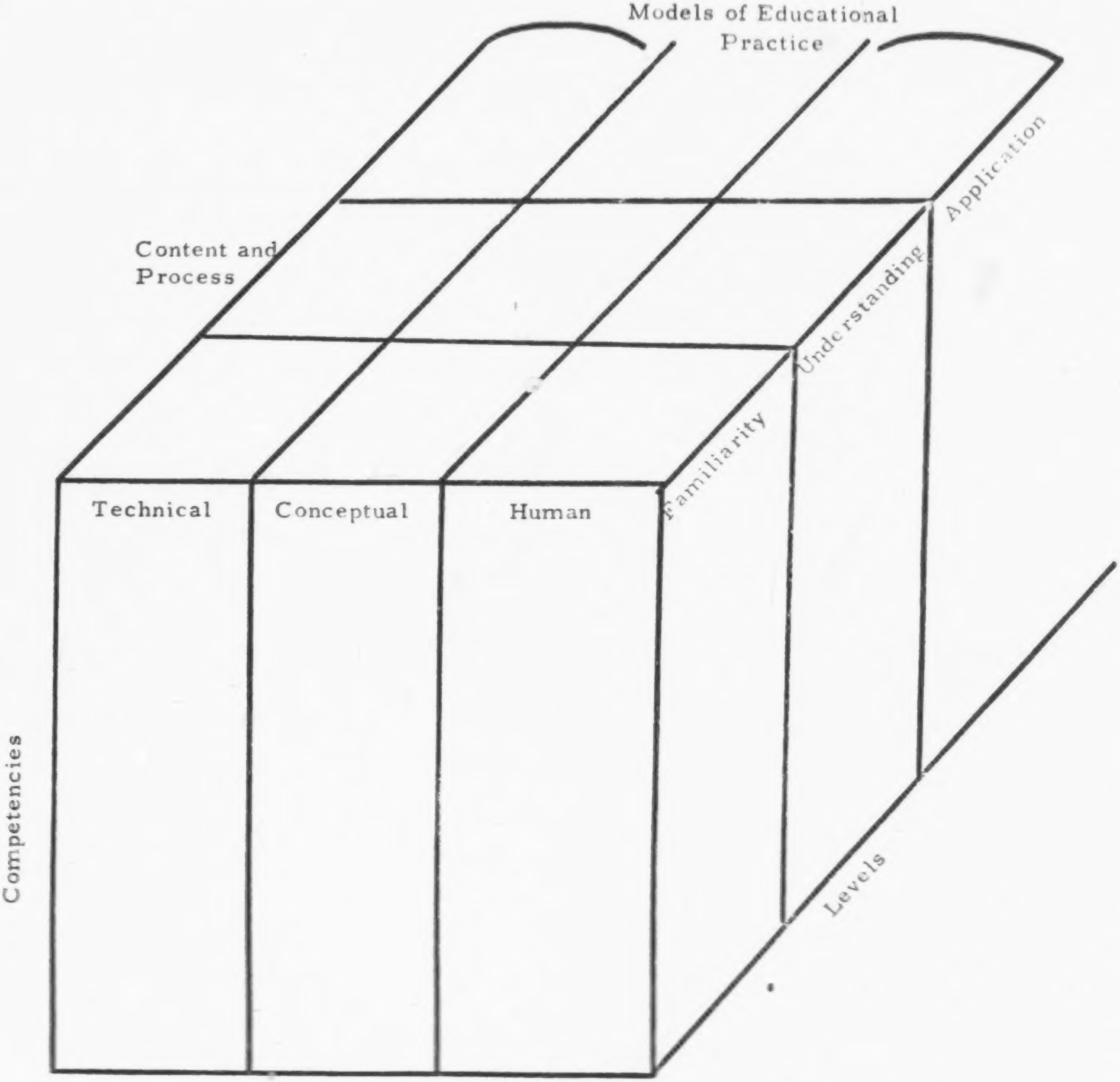
One model was designed and is now being tried out that portrays how these assumptions might be taken into account in order to construct a "Competency Based Curriculum" and identify appropriate processes, at predetermined levels of competence, along a learning continuum. The model is shown in Figure 1.

The model includes 1) a competency dimension classified primarily as technical, conceptual, or human; 2) specified by levels of competence to be attained--familiarity, understanding, or application, and 3) the content (subject matter) and processes (methods) to be employed to develop the competency specified. For illustration: A competency in instructional supervision is the use of at least one interaction analysis technique to assess teaching effectiveness. The interaction analysis technique selected might be that of Flander's ten category rating scheme (content).

Competence with this interaction analysis technique requires *technical* skills of rating at a satisfactory level of reliability (approaching .85), memorization of the ten interaction categories, their recognition in a teacher-pupil exchange during the conduct of a lesson, and the preparation and interpretation of a matrix. Competence also requires *conceptual* knowledge of the assumptions underlying the technique, the limitations of the technique, adaptations that can be made of it, etc. Competence also requires human skills the supervisor might need in using this technique with teachers.

In achieving a satisfactory level of competence supervisors would first need to become *familiar* with interaction analysis. They would need to learn the ten categories; practice recognizing and classifying with tapes or films that permit stopping to discuss specific teacher-pupil exchanges that exemplify each category, read descriptions of the technique and the results of its use, etc. Each category--technical,

FIGURE I: THE GENERAL MODEL FOR A COMPETENCY BASED CURRICULUM


Models of Educational Practice
Content and Process
Technical
Conceptual
Human
Familiarity
Understanding
Application
Levels
Competencies

conceptual, and human--would have appropriate experiences at the level of familiarity and with appropriate processes (methods) to attain a satisfactory level of familiarity.

At the *understanding* and *application* levels, the same would be true. At the *understanding* level, students might be required to demonstrate ability to rate pupil-teacher verbal exchanges, practice preparing matrices of results, role play use of data collected in teacher-supervisor conferences, and the like. At the *application* level students might go into a classroom and carry out the technique and use it with teachers; they might prepare T. V. tapes of their own teaching, apply the technique, and write up the results. As sketchy as this illustration is, it should be clear the model can be used to specify a curriculum in the three dimensions identified by the model and satisfy the assumptions identified.

Problems and issues in constructing a competency based curriculum are being identified and studied. They range from concern about the activities to be employed to measure learning at the application level to the need to identify "molar" problems and simulate them such that the student can respond in "clinical" fashion and reveal whether or not he would actually select and employ a particular competency.

In the application of the model presented, certain curriculum problems have become more clear. The identification of competencies must include the active participation of practicing school administrators if they are to be relevant and properly analyzed into their component parts.

The place of behavioral objectives and the specification of performance standards no longer present difficulties as they assume a logical place in curriculum construction. The measurement of competencies becomes more meaningful and fits naturally into the sequence of instruction. Also, it is becoming apparent that curriculum assessment and revision can become a continuous process rather than a major project of overhauling courses and course sequences. There is the possibility that the traditional course structure will simply cease to exist as needed competencies are identified for a given student, and he proceeds on an individualized basis.

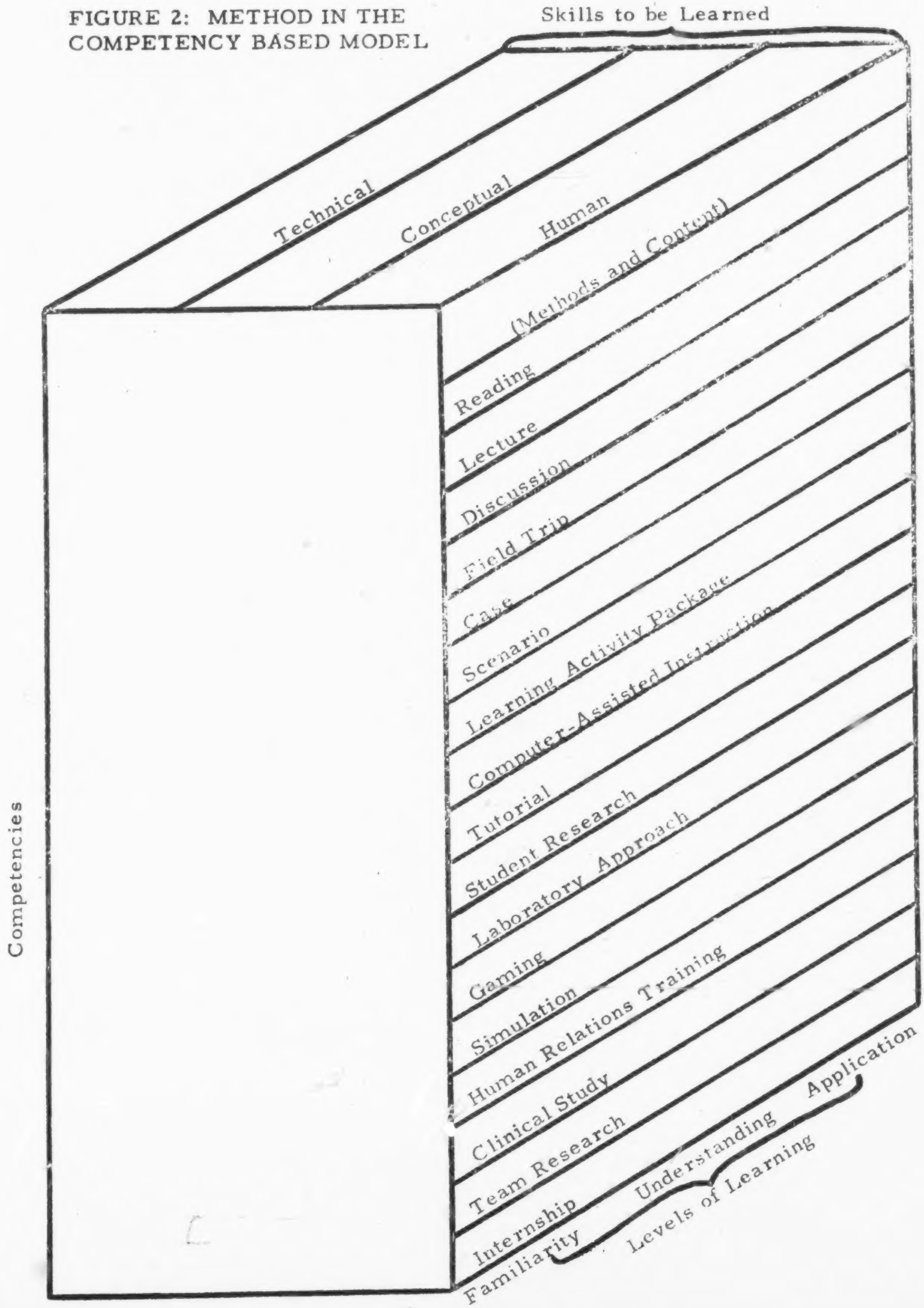
The final section of this article relates to the tailoring of instructional methodologies to the competency based curriculum model. The methods available to conduct instruction require particular attention because of the demand for much different approaches to teaching. Therefore, a review of current methods of instruction and what is known about them is given below. It is presented in chart form in order to condense a large amount of information as concisely as possible.

Methods of Instruction and Their Place in the Model

Returning to the general model (given in Figure I) it is now appropriate to enter the known methods of instruction available to the instructor and student. Figure 2 indicates 17 methods that are sufficiently descrete to permit definition and evaluation. Again, competencies need to be identified and specified in terms of their technical, conceptual, and human components. At this point specific measurable objectives can be stated at the appropriate level of learning desired (familiarity, understanding, and application), and the content and methods selected for instruction. The authors suggest that the model permits, perhaps for the first time, the "fine tuning" of method to specified learning requirements--a condition notoriously absent in much of higher education where lecture or contrived laboratory methods are frequently the only methods employed regardless of the competency to be developed.

human components. At this point specific measurable objectives can be stated at the appropriate level of learning desired (familiarity, understanding, and application), and the content and methods selected for instruction. The authors suggest that the model permits, perhaps for the first time, the "fine tuning" of method to specified learning requirements--a condition notoriously absent in much of higher education where lecture or contrived laboratory methods are frequently the only methods employed regardless of the competency to be developed.

FIGURE 2: METHOD IN THE COMPETENCY BASED MODEL


Skills to be Learned
Technical
Conceptual
Human
(Methods and Content)
Reading
Lecture
Discussion
Field Trip
Case
Scenario
Learning Activity Package
Computer-Assisted Instruction
Tutorial
Student Research
Laboratory Approach
Gaming
Simulation
Human Relations Training
Clinical Study
Team Research
Internship
Familiarity
Understanding
Application
Levels of Learning
Competencies

Although the effectiveness of any method depends on many variable factors in the situation, we can appraise methods in general with respect to their appropriateness for achieving different types and levels of objectives, as indicated in Figure 5.

FIGURE 3: APPROPRIATENESS OF METHODS FOR TRAINING SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, WITH RESPECT TO LEVELS OF LEARNING AND SKILLS TO BE LEARNED

	Levels of Learning			Skills to be Learned		
	Familiarity	Understanding	Application	Technical	Conceptual	Human
Reading	High	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Lecture	Med.	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Discussion	Med.	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Field Trip	Med.	Low	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Case	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Scenario	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Learning Activity Package	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Computer-Assisted Instruction	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Tutorial	Low	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Student Research	Low	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Laboratory Approach	Low	High	Med.	Med.	High	Med.
Gaming	Low	High	Med.	Med.	High	Med.
Simulation	Low	High	High	High	High	Med.
Human Relations Training	Low	High	High	High	High	High
Clinical Study	Low	High	High	High	High	Med.
Team Research	Low	High	High	High	Med.	Low
Internship	Low	Med.	High	High	Med.	Med.

High, Medium, Low = Extent to which the method, when competently employed, tends to be practical and effective in learning the designated skills at the levels desired.

The methods in Figure 3 are listed in sequential clusters that suggest relative emphases at different times in a trainee's preparation. Reading, lectures, discussions, and field trips, for example, might be relatively more appropriate at the early stages of a student's training, when familiarity with a broad array of content is desirable. He might next concentrate on activities that can produce conceptual skills at the understanding level, such as the use of cases, scenarios, learning activity packages, CAI programs, tutorial instruction, and student research. Then he could well become increasingly immersed in job-like activities that tend to be high in effectiveness in producing conceptual skills at the understanding level and also reality oriented, such as laboratory training exercises, gaming, simulation, and human relations training. Finally, his training might culminate in an increasing emphasis on those activities that are most likely to produce technical skills at the application level, such as clinical studies, team research, and internships.

Obviously, this suggested sequence is only suggestive of relative emphases and not prescriptive. Most of the methods that were cited as being most appropriate at the beginning of one's preparation when familiarization is the paramount instructional goal--such as reading, lectures, and discussions--would still be appropriate for certain purposes in the latter stages of a student's program. The point is that certain kinds of instructional activities tend to be more productive at different stages in a program.

The key question for the professor, however, centers on the method or methods that he might best employ in teaching toward a specific objective. Here the information presented in Figure 4 might be useful. The 17 methods are again presented, together with very brief definitions, summary statements concerning the research on each method, the major strengths and weaknesses of each one, and a general appraisal statement on each one. Those who desire a more complete analysis, particularly of some of the less familiar methods, might want to study some of the references listed at the end of this article.

FIGURE 4: METHODOLOGIES OF COLLEGE TEACHING*
A PRELIMINARY REVIEW

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Lecture	Inconclusive; not many studies recently	Can be used effectively to stimulate interest, explain difficult ideas, summarize, or synthesize; economical	Little if any feedback; learner is passive; student lectures (in form of reports to class) are often boring and ineffective	Can be useful for certain purposes, but used far too much and too indiscriminately to achieve purposes illsuited to the method
Discussion	Inconclusive, partly due to imprecise definition of the term, except that student-centered (in contrast with instructor-centered) techniques found to be superior in almost all studies	Provides opportunity for students to learn from each other as well as from instructor; flexible; students can be active learners	Often suffers from lack of planning, focus, and purpose	Can be productive, but must be well planned to yield hoped-for-results; like the lecture method, this one is undoubtedly used too indiscriminately

*References upon which commentary is based, are appended.

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Case	Very few evaluative studies reported; evidence tends to support the use of the case method for appropriate purposes	Can provide interesting and realistic material for wide range of theoretical analyses; cases plentiful, including some on tape and film; economical	If discussion is not led well, can be fruitless exchange of opinions	Can be effective method if discussion is expertly led, particularly for developing analytical skills
Scenario**	No known studies	Realistic; versatile; inexpensive	Effectiveness depends upon skill of instructor--as with case method, could be simply a sharing of opinions	Can provide realistic context for variety of activities, including role playing and small group problem solving

**Scenario refers to a set of materials, usually descriptive as in a scenario, that establishes the situational context within which all the constructs and principles are introduced and dealt with it can lead to role playing, group problem solving, etc.

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Independent Study	Inconclusive; according to one study, effectiveness lies largely in covering of factual content	Adaptable to individual needs; economical	Except in the case of programmed texts, which are rare in educational administration, learner has no opportunity to interact with learning material	If adequate reading (or other) materials available, and if guidance provided in selection of materials, can be economical way for individual to acquire information not otherwise available
Student Research	Most active researchers in education received highest degrees in only ten universities; most education graduates publish no research in ten years following receipt of degree	Ideally, provides means of student's learning by doing while also contributing to professional knowledge; adaptable to individual needs	Consumes much student and faculty time, usually for dubious results	If production of researchers is a major objective, then method is largely ineffective; can be useful and productive means of preparing students for important responsibility, but is likely ineffective or even dysfunctional for many if not most students

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Computer-Assisted Instruction	Little research; one investigator found students changed information search procedures markedly via experience with computerized in-basket problem	Individualized; opportunity to practice decision-making in realistic but "safe" situations; two-way interaction of dialogue between students and program useful in developing information processing skills; student can get understanding of his own behaviors under various conditions	Expensive; programs and hardware not plentiful	Promising new approach, but considerable developmental work needs to be done to find best uses for this device
Learning Activity Packages*	No known research	Provides opportunity for individualization of instruction; utilizes multimedia	Expensive to produce; materials not plentiful, so must be produced locally	Largely untested

*For example, study guide, film strips, tapes, reading list, study and discussion questions, and exam.

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Internship	Little research on effectiveness, partly due to wide variety of practices called "internships"; one investigator found that 6 of 10 interns moved away from attitudes of their administrators, but another found that perceptions of 9 of 13 interns moved closer to those of their administrators	Realistic means of integrating academic learning with demands of the job	Expensive, both to the intern and to the institutions involved; often fosters learning of wrong things from wrong people	Usually valued highly by students, professors, and administrators, but investment in time and money in internships of a semester or more is questionable unless conditions are ideal
Clinical Studies	No known research	Provides opportunity for depth study, analysis, and interpretation of a real situation in all of its school-and-its-environment complexity	Heavy requirements of student and faculty time and energy; gaining access to the most useful situations requires healthy relationships between schools and community agencies, groups and individuals	Can be effective device for helping student to see problems as they really are, in all their complexity

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Simulation	Very few studies of effects on learners; one series of studies revealed little relationship between behavior on in-baskets and on the job	Reality-oriented, yet subject to control; permits student to test his behavior in variety of contexts in short period of time, without risk; interesting to students; active involvement	Materials usually costly and become dated soon; requires skilled instructor; the "reality" of some simulations might be an illusion	Usually rated highly by students; in hands of an able instructor, can be a useful tool, especially for teaching skills of analysis
Laboratory Approach*	Research extremely limited in educational administration; students consistently rate laboratory exercises higher than most other instructional devices; one study showed moderate gains in cognitive skills and changes in way principals spend their time	Accommodates many important principles of learning: active involvement, immediate feedback, face validity, relevance to learners' concerns, interest, and reinforcement	Exercises difficult to develop, hence in short supply; few instructors have skill required to make the approach maximally effective	When conducted competently, laboratory exercises are among the most exciting and highly valued instructional activities as seen by students

*The laboratory approach, as the term is used here, is an instructional system prodecure in which a group of learners is placed in a situation usually having some of the elements of reality simulation, in which the learners' behavior in dealing with the problem at hand produces data that are organized and fed back to the group to form a basis for analysis and interpretation by the group.

Method	Research on Effectiveness	Major Strengths	Major Weaknesses	General Appraisal
Gaming	Little research on effectiveness in educational administration; participants find the experience to be stimulating and helpful in giving them the "feel" of situations involving confrontation	Well regarded by students; reality-based; game theory is somewhat more advanced than is the case for some of the other methods	Games are in very short supply; can be time consuming as instructional devices; content becomes dated rapidly; expensive	Very few games are available which deal directly with the concerns of school principals, but the method is promising
Human Relations Training	Research is plentiful, although very little of it pertains to school administrators; "human relations training" covers a wide range of practice; the studies reveal changes in sensitivity and behavioral skill, and such changes often persist over a significant period of time	Can affect individuals deeply and profoundly, in contrast with the superficiality of many traditional methods	It is difficult to gain access to highly competent trainers, and without such trainers the results can be negative or even disastrous	More than any other method, this one rises or falls on the expertise of the trainer; in the hands of an unquestionably competent person, human relations training can be highly effective, but in the hands of a quack, it can be dangerous

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Competency/Performance/ or Proficiency-Based Teacher Education

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Whenever two educators meet these days, they often choose to call a new movement either competency-based or performance-based teacher education and to debate the merits of their choices. In this paper, we will speculate upon their meanings and suggest a relationship between the two terms.

Consider the Fiddle.

When one analyzes the performance of a violin soloist at the symphony, certain skills become apparent. He must read music, properly handle the bow, be able to tune the instrument, and have a certain stage presence. So must the beginner at the seventh grade concert. The difference is in the criteria which are acceptable by decision-makers. What is more than adequate in one instance is unacceptable in another. Further, the seventh grader may be as skilled as the professional in many aspects of the performance; he may properly hold the bow and read music, and yet not be able to articulate these in the total performance.

The parallel in teaching is obvious; the prospective teacher may perform adequately in asking higher order questions, establishing set, and writing criterion-referenced objectives, yet not be able to integrate these skills and employ them appropriately in given circumstances. Beginning teachers may be judged competent and show promise for further development, but three or five years later, that same level of competence would be inadequate. This implies that the profession define a series of competency requirements, which might increase in complexity and scope as the teacher gains experience. Such criteria, too, could form one basis for differentiated school staffing.

Personal styles of demonstrating required competencies lead to different but equally effective teaching strategies, just as violinists interpret music in a variety of ways. Indeed, the more competent the violinist the more likely he is to extend the interpretation and not rigidly and strictly interpret the music as written. Jascha Heifetz and Yehudi Menuhin may play the same composition, but interpret it quite differently--yet both are acclaimed for the expertise of their performances. They are virtusos.

So it is with teachers; master teachers perform in a wide variety of styles. Our own research indicates that some teaching virtusos are child-focusers, some task-focusers, some pragmatists,[1] yet all three are professional educators. One is concerned primarily with how children feel; the second emphasizes completion of tasks and projects; while the third considers situational variables in making decisions. Bruce Joyce has described four functional styles of teachers which require varied competencies: "(1) Those oriented toward social relations and toward the relations between man and his culture and which draw upon social sources; (2) those which drew on information processing systems and descriptions of human capacity for processing information; (3) those which drew on personality development, the process of personal construction of reality and the capacity to function as an integrated personality as the major source; (4) those developed from an analysis of the processes by which human behavior is shaped and reinforced."[2] While a competency core may exist, the varied teacher personalities, styles, and stances preclude definition of a single set of requirements for all teachers. Further, the more a person is proficient as a teacher, the more likely his professional style is to be unique.

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[1] Other teaching stances include Time-Servers, Contented Conformists, Ambivilents, and Alienated. For a report of the research, See Ann G. Olmsted, Frank Blackington III, and W. Robert Houston, Teacher Stances (East Lansing, Michigan State University, 1971).

Let us return to the analogy of the violinist. Note that the lowest level of performance demonstration was at the single skill level (correctly holding the bow, reading music, asking higher order questions). These were then combined into a performance and if the individual met stipulated criteria which were appropriate to the target and objectives of that performance (7th grade orchestra or New York Philamonic--concert or practice), he was judged competent. Thus competence is situational (contextual).

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[2] Bruce R. Joyce, et al. *Models of Teaching as a Paradigm for Teacher Education* (New York: Teacher College, Columbia University, 1972) p.3.

A parallel might be drawn between measurement and evaluation. One measures a performance but evaluates competence. In assessing a violinist, a diver, or a teacher's verbal interaction with children, rating scales, tests, observations or other instruments may be employed. They describe what is, while evaluation of those data consider the adequacy of measured phenomena within a context and value orientation.

Competence, too, is demonstrated over a longer period of time; a single performance is not an indicator of competence. Thus, a teacher's individual performance generally may be of such quality to be judged "competent", yet occasionally have poor performances. Competent athletes, speakers, or musicians all have "off days"; so do competent teachers.

Teacher education programs are concerned more with competence than individual performance even though some judgments are necessary in assessing competence. Further, a program of teacher development is goal (or goals) oriented; and it lasts an entire lifetime. A professional seldom attains his goals because his goals change and evolve as he develops. Each individual, as Santayana reminds us, chooses his own personal star toward which he strives.

Competency-Based or Proficiency-Directed?

When quality of performance is considered, two concepts aid in clarifying the issues: competency and proficiency.

demonstrate teaching knowledge and skills. That demonstration is observable (and their objectives are to "write," "do," "describe;" not "understand,"or"perceive" which are non-observable). Further, performance reminds us that knowledge of content and teaching strategies is not sufficient in teaching--overt action is important.

Competency-based, on the other hand, emphasizes a minimum standard; it adds criterion-levels, value orientations, and quality to the definition of the movement. While competency advocates note three levels for criteria--cognitive, performance, and consequence--they press for the latter as the most significant measure of effectiveness. Performance advocates, also recognizing consequence as the ultimate test of an individual's effectiveness, point out that many intervening variables affect results (pupil ability, interest, motivation, availability of resources). They stress that our present understanding of these variables and our inability to adequately control them in field settings preclude consequence objectives as realistic requirements. Thus, objectives requiring performance become the major ones in a teacher preparation program, and performance-based is more descriptive as a generic name for this movement.

Both performance-based and competency-based express important elements of the movement--one focusing on objectives, the other on viable criteria. Both are useful, not conflicting.

These two terms are defined by the *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* as follows:

- *Competent* - properly or well-qualified; capable.
  2. Adequate for the purpose; suitable, sufficient.
  3. Legally qualified or fit; admissible.

- *Proficient* - Performing in a given art, skill, or branch of learning with expert correctness and facility...proficient implies a high degree of competence through training.

Considering the objectives of certification and teacher education, perhaps we should refer to *competency-based certification and proficiency-directed teacher education*. In the former, we are considering a base, a legal standard which tends to protect society from incompetents while the latter more nearly describes the scope, objectives, and structure of teacher education. Teacher education seeks to aid prospective and in-service teachers meet minimum certification standards, but it goes far beyond this; it encourages teachers and the profession to seek maximum expertise. Further, while competency may refer to minimum standards below which no one is acceptable, proficiency can be multi-dimensional, reflecting the varied needs of task focusers, child-focusers, and pragmatists; role assignment; and urban or suburban environments.

Performance or Competence?

As one talks to proponents of competency-based and performance-based teacher education terminology, it becomes abundantly clear that they refer to the same movement. Advocates of performance-based terminology refer to the *way in which teachers*

Appendix B

PRESERVICE UNIVERSITY PREPARATION PROGRAMS

The Development of a Competency Based, Individualized Program: University of Utah

The Department of Educational Administration, University of Utah, includes more than the training of educational administrators per se. Organizationally it is composed of four divisions: cultural foundations of education, higher education, instructional systems, educational administration. Each division has an integrity of its own; yet, each works within a common framework for program development, student and staff administration, research and field activities, and general administration of department affairs. Programs within the department are used as "areas of emphasis" by colleges and departments such as business, social work, medicine, nursing, and recreation. The mix of students--those whose major preparation involves programs within the department and those seeking preparation from outside the department--provides unique opportunities and also unusual demands for program planning, coordination, and involvement.

Background. The department, through 1969-70, had followed national trends by its participation in NCPEA, UCEA, AERA, AASA, and NASSP projects relating to professional training. A core of common study, areas of specialization, admissions and residency requirements, internships and other reality-oriented experiences were all incorporated into a functional program. The department, by and large, accepted the stance of "early adopter" of new practice and did not devote serious effort to conceptualizing and inventing; to experimenting, testing, or evaluating;

or to long-range planning and the tuning of programs to relevant needs and issues. Traditional course patterns and formats were followed, problems and issues with import for future practice were largely of peripheral concern, and the program was tuned to past and current conditions with little attention to the anticipation of future needs. To some extent this is still true; but the current program orientation, the preparation and testing of new models, student involvement, employment of the techniques of long-range planning, new linkages with the field, and other developments now provide a different climate, one which has the potential of making unique contributions to the field.

This article is an attempt to describe program development activities that are now underway. The description hopefully will provide the reader with some insight into what is taking place and the implications of these developments for the programs of training of educational administrators. Finally the concepts that are central to program development are examined.

During 1970-71, the department undertook a series of seminars, retreats, and *ad hoc* work group activities to assess needs, examine capabilities, and project lines of action. These activities provided two important results. First, they established a pattern for development that might be thought of as a development process having distinct phases: a) *concept building* to guide b) *action projects* that result in c) certain *products* which can be d) *tested* to see if they are attaining desired results. Second, these initial activities clarified the fact that the staff itself was central to the development process--to change anything the staff must improve itself by gaining new insights and competencies. Planned staff development which came to be formulated into an Individualized Continuing Education (ICE) program for professors was developed. This latter element is frequently given inadequate attention or ignored altogether for one reason or another. (Perhaps it is felt that professors are mature, responsible scholars who can identify and carry out self-development compatible with program needs, that the university climate itself is sufficient for professor growth; or perhaps some other reasons account for this condition.) However, at the University of Utah a conscious effort is made, through the ICE program, to create a climate for program development.

Stages of Development. Beginning with the series of activities described above, the department placed itself in a position to undertake fundamental program development work. Although the description of these developments may appear to be carefully thought out and smoothly coordinated, this was not entirely the case. The work, however, did organize itself into five inter-related, though overlapping, stages that can be outlined as follows:

Stage I: Long-range Planning

1. Department retreats, task forces, and informal work groups reviewed the program, assessed needs, and generated ideas.
2. Institutional studies were conducted to clarify the operational status of the program--follow up, placement and job demand, student flow, course reviews, professor loads, etc. In all, sixteen separate studies were completed and are now updated regularly.

3. A five-year plan was completed with the aid of the University's Office of Long Range Planning. Gantt charts were prepared for the attainment of the objectives of the plan. During this period an NCATE review, a Graduate School evaluation, and a review by the State Office of Public Instruction were completed.

Stage II: Individualized Continuing Education (ICE) for Professors

1. Professors are provided mini-grants, partially subsidized by CFK Ltd., for self-development projects that fall within the scope of the department development plan. Projects include field studies into administrator competencies, planning a sequence of courses in modern management techniques, identification of needs for administrators in higher education, development and trial of new formats for courses, etc. Eight projects have been completed to date, and five more are projected for this year.
2. Clarification of the basic concepts in program development, in competency based curriculum, and in a format for individualized instruction, was carried to a level of sophistication sufficient to permit implementation in curriculum development.
3. Leadership in the concept of the competency based curriculum was undertaken through an interest group of NCPEA and the initiation of a publication, the CCBC Notebook which now reaches over one hundred institutions, organized projects, state offices of education, and individuals. The CCBC Notebook is partially funded by CFK Ltd.

Stage III: Structures for Innovation

1. An R. and D. Learning Lab was created within the department and is now equipped and fully functional.
2. A seven-man student committee, representative of each division, was created and functions in department policy making, course evaluation, conduct of student directed seminars, and all areas of department administration.
3. An innovative device for faculty and student initiative in brainstorming ideas, raising issues, obtaining examination of and help in problem solving referred to as the "non-group" has been successfully employed on a regular basis.
4. Library science and instructional media were merged into a new division of instructional systems and integrated into the department.

Stage IV: Innovative Program Developments

1. New formats and content, cast in the competency based curriculum framework, are being developed in the R. and D. Lab.
2. Competency statements are being developed and validated for each instructional area.
3. A UCEA seminar was held on the topic of Futurism in Education and the content and processes incorporated into the program.
4. Instructional changes include a) the new management course sequence, b) a seminar on minority problems in education, c) a seminar on problems and issues involving top-level policy makers, and d) student-directed seminars.

5. Currently a task force is reviewing learning in four arenas: formal course experiences, reality oriented experiences, integrative experiences, and culminating experiences.

Stage V: Additional Linkages with the Field

1. A group of superintendents and principals meet regularly to review program developments, examine training needs, identify problems and issues with implications for research and instructional activities, etc.
2. An institute concept is being explored to incorporate service, field experience, research, and other areas of joint interest between the public schools and the department.
3. Project work is underway on competency based certification, individualized in-service training packages, and a more closely supervised internship program.

The above list could be extended to include a number of individual projects and activities. It does provide a kind of outline that is illustrative of developmental emphasis within the department as a whole and within which professors plan self-development projects.

The Competency Based Curriculum and Its Application. The basic model for a competency based curriculum is contained in a paper by McCleary (Utah) and McIntyre (Texas) available from the department. The paper was circulated in the CCBC Notebook (Winter 1972), and a condensed version was published in the Bulletin of NASSP (March 1972). This model identifies competencies as having three major dimensions for curriculum design purposes: 1) content specified in terms of conceptual, technical, and human skills; 2) levels of learning specified as familiarity, understanding, and application; and 3) methodology in terms of sixteen identifiable types. The model permits the breakdown of any competency into component parts by content, level of learning, and appropriate methodological processes.

It is now possible to specify competencies, develop curriculums and instructional modes, obtain student profiles in terms of competencies to be obtained, and determine the extent of effectiveness of learning. This activity is now underway in the R. and D. Learning Lab at the University of Utah. The concept of competency is also being investigated in terms of the concept of individualization because formats must be developed to treat each student in terms of each competency. One format which shows unusual promise is being tested using competencies in the area of instructional supervision.

The format is as follows:

1. A profile of competency needs is developed with each student from a self-evaluation form.
2. A study plan is determined in terms of the profile and scheduled.
3. Student follows a basic procedure for each learning module prescribed:
    a. taped--visual presentation of content
    b. readings and optional media presentations
    c. individual study guide--including development of a log

   d. learning group experiences

   e. performance product

   f. student evaluation of the module

4. Student consults with instructor and receives ratings of log and performance products.

In the area of instructional supervision the following modules have been packaged and tested in the individualized, competency based format:

Learning Modules

1. Models for diagnosing teaching and learning (Parts I and II)
2. Role of the supervisor--role theory, critical incident technique, and a function analysis technique
3. Supervision process--person-oriented theory and research
4. Content analysis--assessment of instruction
5. Interaction analysis--assessment of teacher-learner relationships
6. Climate analysis--Guilford model applied
7. Supervision strategies--leadership

Questing Modules

1. Learning theory (Parts I and II)
2. Models for curriculum development
3. Lesson planning
4. Programs of in-service training

Questing modules cover content not considered part of the supervision course but which were found to be needed by many supervisors. Twenty-two supervisors have now taken all seven of the learning modules--most modules were taken to the application level of learning. The range of time spent was from fifty-four to eighty-six hours to achieve the competencies required at the levels agreed upon.

In this format individualization occurs in both content and level of learning but also in the pacing or rate at which the student proceeds. Much work remains in the preparation and testing of materials and in the development of instruments for measuring competencies at the various levels. However, the approach is poomising in resolving many of the needs for quality pre-service and in-service training and for certification.

The Department's 5-year plan calls for the attainment of a completely individualized, competency based curriculum within that portion of the program now executed through formal courses. It is expected that the formal course format will "self destruct" as the individualized, programmed materials become available. Perhaps of more significance will likely be the altered role of the professor. It is already apparent that his role will become a developer and tester of learning materials and formats, a person who relates to individual learners rather than to class- or even seminar-size groups, and a person who is in close touch with practice. He will need to concern himself more with measured results of instruction and with the correlates of instruction and the performance of his students.

The University of Connecticut
March, 1972

A COMPETENCY BASED PROGRAM IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

John W. Brubacher
Clarence R. Olsen

To date, the reports from various colleges and universities regarding competency based curricula have fallen into three categories: 1) specific competencies and the instructional techniques designed for their achievement[1] 2) a framework by which specific competencies may be matched with the most appropriate methods[2] and 3) the development of programs in educational administration based on competencies.[3]

Over the past two years the faculty of the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Connecticut has worked in the latter area. It has attempted to design a total program in educational administration which would meet the requirements of the following five departmental goals:

1. the recruitment, preparation, and placement of graduate students,
2. the professional growth of members of the department,
3. the design of research in the field of educational administration,
4. the provision of service to the state of Connecticut, and
5. the continuing evaluation of departmental instruction, program, research and service efforts.

Although each of these goals was further defined, the first goal provided the thrust for the development of competncies. Its parameters, i.e., recruitment, preparation and placement were limited to:

1. educational administrators (field administration).
2. clinical professors (field administration and university teaching),
3. professors of educational administration (university teaching and research), and

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[1] Association of California Professors of Educational Administration, "School Administration as a Discipline," (a duplicated paper prepared by a committee of the Association in March, 1971 and edited by George Hallowitz in May, 1971).

[2] Lloyd McCleary and Kenneth McIntyre, "Competency Development and the Methodology of College Teaching: A Model and Proposal," (a duplicated paper received from Lloyd E. McCleary, the University of Utah in December, 1971).

[3] "Notes of Interest: The University of Vermont," CCBC NOTEBOOK (Feb. 1972). Vol. I, No. 2, p. 2.

4. persons who will influence educational administration (school board members, legislators, leaders in teacher organizations).

Procedural Objectives:

The design of educational administration preparation programs to meet the individual requirements of such diverse yet allied groups turned departmental discussions to the question of whether there were objectives that might be common to all such programs. This question was assigned to a departmental subcommittee for investigation. The following statement is drawn from the subcommittee's report:

> The impact of the formal education of an individual at the graduate level depends heavily upon the totality of many years of study at the elementary through graduate school levels. Undergraduate programs for some students may have been broad in scope. For others, programs have contained high degrees of specialization in particular areas of study. For individuals who were prepared for teaching, considerable emphasis was placed on professional education courses. For others the decision to prepare for teaching probably came after graduation from an undergraduate liberal arts program which provided little opportunity for professional education training. A graduate program should be structured to build upon whatever foundation the student brings to the university, advancing both his specialized proficiency and his broad education as a scholar and citizen. How can the Department of Educational Administration structure its curriculum framework so as to insure that each individual who enrolls in a program:
>
> 1) has a plan of study which considers his total undergraduate and graduate training programs as well as his personal experiences in the determination of the best program for him to follow at the University?
>
> 2) uses the resources of the total university to enlarge his knowledge and experience beyond what might be possible at a smaller institution?
>
> 3) has enough specialized knowledge and experience to make a successful beginning in his specialized field, with full recognition that some phases of the work he will do may be better perfected on the job, through in-service type study, or at later stage through advanced study?
>
> 4) has enough work in areas of professional education other than his specialty that will enable him to effectively relate his specialized work to the totality of education?
>
> 5) has enough continuing study in general education or the liberal arts to maintain and advance his interest in becoming a broadly educated individual?

The faculty framed its response to these five questions through the development of a statement of nine procedural objectives to be utilized by members of the Department and graduate students in the design of programs of study. The objectives included:

1. to develop understanding and control of the field of educational administration,
2. to increase effectiveness in communication skills,
3. to design an individualized inter-disciplinary program,
4. to develop greater understanding of and commitment to democratic ideals and the political institutions which implement them,
5. to develop skills and procedures to appraise educational programs in terms of community as well as individual needs and use the findings to strengthen such programs,
6. to understand the theories, strategies and organization of educational administration as they apply to educational systems,
7. to experience supervised administrative and applied research experiences,
8. to demonstrate competence in the ability to conduct and report on problems of educational value, and
9. to continue professional growth in the field through participation in seminars, short courses and institutes.

Competencies:

The procedural objectives for the preparation program provided the overall direction for restructuring the departmental preparation program. From the outset the department members centered their discussions on fundamental questions regarding the process of administration, the structure of organizations and the behavior of administrators. The numerous questions that departmental representatives asked themselves as they attended to their task included those similar to the following. What functions does the administrator perform? What content must he master to be able to perform these functions? What competencies must he possess that will enable him to master the content? What levels of competency must one possess who wishes to understand administration? Will those who are prepared in the field of administration need to possess different levels of competency dependent upon their roles? What experiences can be provided through a program that will enable those being prepared to attain competency? What measures are available that will tell one when a person has attained a satisfactory level of competency? Some of the questions are now answered, at least in part. There are others, which to date have not received consideration.

The primary focus of the questions regarding program development is not upon content. Rather it is upon the "functions" for which the administrator is responsible. The members of the Department of Educational Administration delineated four functions which are not only basic to the behavior of the administrator, but also describe the parameters of his job:

Planning	to develop educational programs with respect to the needs, objectives and available resources of the population served.
Communicating	to develop methods of internal and external group processes.
Allocating	to utilize human and material resources within the organization.
Evaluating	to compare the desired outcomes of the organization with actual accomplishments based upon performance indicators with respect to the needs, objectives, and available resources of the population served.

After agreement upon the four basic functions, objectives and competencies for each function were delineated by the faculty. The functions, functional objectives and functional competencies are presented in Table I. Students would meet competency requirements either through university and/or field experiences. It is expected that each student enrolled in a program in general administration will be able to perform at a minimal level for each of the functional competencies. This may mean possessing familiarity with a particular functional competency in some cases. In another area it may be mandatory that the student acquire an indepth comprehension of the competencies. For a particular student in an individual program, there will be some competencies that he will not only have to understand, but will have to be able to apply them as well. Competency levels will depend upon the program the student has elected, i.e., an individual who is preparing for the university professorship and who is enrolled in a Ph.D. program will need to possess a higher level of research skills than will the individual who is preparing for a middle school principalship and who is enrolled in a program leading to state certification.

A recent survey of the courses offered by the School of Education indicated that each of the competencies were included, at least at the familiarity level, in one or more courses. However, there is no assurance that the administrative candidate will have taken courses which include each of the competencies. Present departmental emphases are being directed toward an effort to see that a minimal level of each competency is included in all student programs. Another departmental effort is being made to insure that specific courses develop certain competencies in depth.

Other departmental efforts are being directed toward the study of alternative methods for attaining competency levels. Such alternatives would include: previous experience, internships, field services, individual research,etc.

With the development of the new competency based curriculum, the department became increasingly concerned with the problem of whether the new program actually "made a difference." Did students feel that they had achieved the competencies? Were they able to use them on the job? A thirty nine item questionnaire was constructed, based upon the four functions - planning, communicating, allocating, and evaluating. Each item was accompanied by a five point rating scale that ranged from a low of one (1) to a high of five (5).

After one year on the job, each previous student is asked to indicate how effective the preparation program was in enabling him to gain the competencies. The same questionnaire is mailed to each employer asking him to provide his perception of how effectively the student was performing the competencies. This evaluative process will be implemented annually in order to obtain program feedback. The resulting data will be used for continuing program evaluation and modification. Appendix A contains a copy of the instrument.

Table I -- Functions, functional objectives and functional competencies

FUNCTION	FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVE	FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCY
1. Planning: to develop educational programs with respect to the needs, objectives and available resources of the population served.	1.1 to understand the foundations of education	1.1.1 to identify past and present philosophies of education and to develop reasoned assumptions about their implications.
		1.1.2 to identify learning theories and to develop reasoned assumptions about their implications.
		1.1.3 to describe and order historical trends in the development of education and to develop reasoned assumption from their implications
		1.1.4 to structure a consistent philosophy of educational leadership.
	1.2 to develop general and specific educational objectives.	1.2.1 to translate the stated philosophy of a school system into general system wide objective
		1.2.2 to design individual school objectives
		1.2.3 to write specific behavorial objectives for individual learner.
	1.3 to develop instructional and support programs for the school system	1.3.1 to design new and modify existing curricula
		1.3.2 to plan a rational for staffing
		1.3.3 to analyze relationships among varying staff roles
		1.3.4 to define and design the need for support programs, i.e., pupil personnel services, busing, etc.

Table I -- Functions, functional objectives and functional competencies

FUNCTION	FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVE	FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCY
	1.4 to develop resource projections	1.4.1 to define and analyze types of school organizations
		1.4.2 to explain resource development, i.e., where monies come from
		1.4.3 to analyze community needs in the light of expected objectives, demographic data and resources.
	1.5 to interpret budgetary concerns	1.5.1 to restructure the educational program into a spending plan
		1.5.2 to articulate the financial needs of the school system
		1.5.3 to formulate planning, programming and budgeting systems for the schools.
2. Communicating: to develop methods of internal and external group processes.	2.1 to develop processes and techniques of leadership as related to staff and students	2.1.1 to demonstrate processes and techniques of supervision and its effective utilization.
		2.1.2 to demonstrate the processes and techniques of collective negotiations and its effective utilization.
		2.1.3 to demonstrate the role of decision making in educational leadership and its effective utilizations.

Table I -- Functions, functional objectives and functional competencies

FUNCTION	FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVE	FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCY
	2.2 to comprehend the potentials of external organizational relationships	2.2.1 to select proper media recording to purposes and circumstances.
		2.2.2 to maintain open relations with the public
		2.2.3 to identify power structures
		2.2.4 to design a plan for participation and responsibility on the part of parents and community representatives.
		2.2.5 to formulate policy for interacting with the city, state and federal governments.
3. Allocating: to utilize human and material resources within the organization	3.1 to utilize and develop the human resources available.	3.1.1 to structure manpower in accord with needs and technical skills available
		3.1.2 to structure manpower utilization patterns for educational institutions
		3.1.3 to define and design in-service education programs
	3.2 to utilize and develop material resources	3.2.1 to design facilities for educational programs
		3.2.2 to develop processes for obtaining material resources
		3.2.3 to develop processes for the maintenance of material resources

TABLE I -- Functions, functional objectives and functional competencies

FUNCTION	FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVE	FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCY
4. Evaluating: to compare the desired outcomes of the organization with actual accomplishments based upon performance indicators with respect to the needs, objectives and available resources of the population served.	4.1 to understand the methods and techniques used in evaluating.	4.1.1 to use systemic methods of evaluation
		4.1.2 to cite commonly used standardized measures
		4.1.3 to apply and demonstrate the use of research techniques.
	4.2 to develop evaluation designs for processes and products	4.2.1 to design evaluation programs for student growth
		4.2.2 to design evaluation programs for staff effectiveness
		4.2.3 to create research designs for educational programs.

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, LOS ANGELES

Department of School Administration and Supervision

REPORT
# of the
Program Development Committee

May 1972

Edited by
Gerald Rasmussen

Members

Dr. Eugene Benedetti
Dr. A. LeRoy Bishop
Dr. Harold D. Hall
Dr. Ralph E. Kloepper
Dr. Selmer Ostlie
Dr. Gerald R. Rasmussen

Tentative Draft 5/'72

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SUMMARY OF COMMITTEE ACTIVITY

The Committee was appointed by Dr. Harold D. Hall, Department Chairman, in January, 1971. Drs. Bishop, Kloepper (Chairman), and Rasmussen held their first meeting on January 13. Thereafter, during regular academic quarters, the Committee averaged two meetings a month until spring quarter, 1972. On May 4, 5, and 6, 1971 the Committee met with groups of Elementary principals, Secondary principals and Central Office administrators, respectively. The participants in these meetings were from areas served by the department. A summary of these meetings is provided with the supplemental materials. During the fall quarter, 1971, Drs. Benedetti, Hall and Ostlie were added to the Committee and in January, 1972, Dr. Gerald R. Rasmussen assumed the chairmanship.

DEPARTMENTAL POINT OF VIEW

The Department of School Administration and Supervision prepares its students to become administrators and supervisors in California schools. The Department is an integral part of a school, a college, a state and the nation. It contributes to, as well as, draws from the resources of these institutions and agencies in its on-going operation.

The Department builds programs which are flexible and tailored to meet the needs of individual students. To meet the changing needs of its students, the Department is involved in continuous evaluation and change in order to provide instructional programs in the various aspects of administration and supervision, as well as interdisciplinary experiences which are recognized as necessary background for present-day administrators and supervisors.

The Department emphasizes school administration as educational leadership--as action which facilitates achievement of objectives identified by the people involved (administrators, school faculty and staff members, pupils, and other community members). This view implies that leadership can be provided by the status leader, by any member of a group, or by the group as a whole. The responsibility for making decisions can be extended to include all persons affected by the decisions.

Since leadership involves working with individuals as well as with groups, it is essential that educational leaders be especially competent in interpersonal relations, being able to effect a climate conducive to facilitating change both in themselves as well as in others. Skill in interpersonal relations is highly important in bringing about effective, cooperative effort in a democratic atmosphere.

The use of the scientific method in problem solving is a very appropriate procedure to follow in attempting to achieve group objectives as it provides for flexibility and adaptability. The successful use of the method requires the learner to make a conscious and systematic approach to solutions of problems. The open use of this method provides for integration of cognition and effort, structure and choice, and responsibility and freedom.

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT

1. Instructional programs should be designed to benefit Society and individual members of society.
2. The educational program should be a product of cooperative efforts of California State University, Los Angeles, and concerned individuals, groups, and organizations.
3. Operational authority and responsibility for instructional programs should be the province of the department, rather than individual faculty members.
4. Appraisal of departmental programs, including student progress, should be continuous.
5. Self-assessment of professional performance of instructors should be an on-going process.
6. Academic and professional codes, as well as guaranteed human rights, should furnish norms of behavior for faculty and students.
7. Each member of the department should assume a responsibility to work with colleagues in the development and evaluation of departmental programs.
8. Students should be encouraged to participate in program development and evaluation.
9. Variety as it pertains to educational philosophy, teaching style and use of effective techniques should be espoused.
10. Instructional programs should prepare students to become effective agents for change.
11. Students should learn to become leaders in the schools of "tomorrow" as well as those of "today."
12. Faculty should help students to discover their leadership potential and channel its development.
13. Instructional programs should be tailored for individual students.

PURPOSES OF THE DEPARTMENT

1. To recruit and select high quality candidates for careers in school administration and supervision.
2. To prepare persons to become productive, contributing and creative building level and/or central office administrators and supervisors in public and private schools.
3. To provide in-service education opportunities for administration and supervision practioners focusing on upgrading programs--both general and specific.
4. To carry out research and encourage experimentation in educational administration and supervision.
5. To develop and implement procedures for placement and follow-up of students completing programs in the department.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR COMPETENCIES

I. Human Values and Skills

A. Intra-personal. Demonstrates the ability

1. To live with the ambiguities of change and conflict, and
2. The inclination to study his own motivations and actions in their effect on others
3. As shown in the daily performance of his duties, to be a person who has respect for himself and for all others
4. To be a person who possesses trust in others as an operational expression of faith
5. To be a person who has the stamina to make tough decisions when necessary, and
6. Willingness to pursue common goals, despite personal reservations regarding them
7. To make an honest attempt to evaluate himself, both objectively and realistically, and
8. Disposition to listen as a sincere expression of his desire to understand
9. To be a student of himself, particularly in regard to personal values which shape his actions and decisions
10. To be a person who is deeply dedicated to serve the goals of education in whatever capacity he finds himself
11. To display emotional maturity, particularly in stress distuations.

B. Interpersonal. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Develop an atmosphere conducive to personal development and goal achievement of students and staff.
2. Perform effectively both as a leader and a participant in group situations.
3. Involve relevant individuals and groups in decision-making processes and respects decisions so reached.
4. Develop an open climate in which differences of opinion can be voiced freely and without fear of recriminations.

5. Understand the behavior of people as individuals and groups based on the findings from the behavioral sciences.

6. Respect the feelings and values of those with whom he works.

7. Create interdependence among persons, particularly regarding goals and agreement on means of achieving them.

8. Motivate students and teachers to a high level of learning and teaching through his leadership capacity.

9. Develop operational policies and procedures which reflect a belief in collegial relationships, respecting the professional staff as professionals.

II. Technical Skills

A. Planning and Purpose-setting. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Develop population projections, interpret these projections, discover trends, and relate the information gained to goals and purposes of the school.

2. Plan, utilize, and operate facilities so that they best serve the instructional programs of the school.

3. Identify corrective needs consistent with the goals of the school, and also to help others in the identification for development of relevant curricula experience.

B. Communication. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Formulate both orally and in writing purposes, aims and goals for the school which are clearly understood by all members of the school community.

2. Involve appropriate groups in the development of policy statements which are clear, concise and acceptable to the school community.

3. Operate effectively in an environment of communication saturation, exercising expert judgment, ordering and selecting various communications with respect to their urgency.

4. Develop channels for immediate feedback at all levels of decision-making, and to develop an atmosphere of sincere willingness to receive and consider all communications.

5. Create a climate conducive to group involvement in effective problem solving.

6. Express ideas clearly, both orally and in writing.

7. Understand group dynamics, at least to the point of performing effectively as a participant and a leader in small-group situations.

8. Keep his mouth shut when appropriate and to listen actively.

9. Recognize the necessity for the informal organization and the role it can play in facilitating communications.

C. Research. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Find research appropriate to a problem and to utilize it effectively in seeking solutions to the problem.

2. Store and retrieve significant data and to utilize it in planning, problem-solving, decision-making and purpose-setting.

3. Gather data and to utilize research in assessing the overall health of the organization in order to improve the effectiveness of the organization.

D. Decision-making. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Apply tests of relevance, expertise, and jurisdiction in identifying and pursuing problems involving shared decision-making.

2. Develop models or paradigms for decision-making and to use them constructively.

3. Modify structural components in an organization to maximize effective decision-making.

4. Support operational decision with sufficient resources, commitment, and time to provide a reasonable base for evaluation.

5. Apply professional and/or hierarchical concepts of decision-making as the situation warrants.

6. Seek information needed for decision-making and make it available to those who should have it.

7. Recognize that most of the crucial problems facing the schools are ill-structured and complex--avoid, therefore, simplistic and hurried solutions.

E. Change Agentry. Demonstrates the ability

1. And inclination to seek change and improvement.
2. To be aware of new developments on the growing edge of education.
3. To understand the range of human motivational factors relating to change v. stability.
4. To assess orientation to change in a particular group.
5. To utilize leadership skills in sharing control in decision-making and implementation processes.
6. To evaluate and reassess the results of change.

III. Knowledge, Theories and Concepts

A. Social Forces Affecting Schools. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Identify those social forces which have the potential to affect schools.
2. Determine which social forces are affecting schools and to determine how these forces interrelate.
3. Analyze the motives and operational techniques of the various social forces affecting schools.
4. Operate effectively with and to draw positive benefit from the various social forces affecting schools.

B. Organizational Structure. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Assess organizational structure needs of a system, subsystem, and/or component unit.
2. Develop appropriate organizational structure.
3. Develop operational policies and procedures for organizations.
4. Function effectively in an operational role within an organizational structure.

C. Curriculum Design, Implementation and Evaluation. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Organize the administrative and teaching staff, together with interested laymen and experts
   a. for the identification and organization of curricular objectives in view of their implications for student behavior

b. for the determination of best curriculum design and organization to accommodate experiences, activities, units of work, courses of study, study outlines and other pertinent augmentations for the attainment of specified objectives

c. for the establishment of appropriate procedures for evaluating progress toward objectives and for making changes in curricular content and organization.

2. Organize professional staff to formulate plans concerned with the development of curriculum objectives.

3. Encourage lay and professional groups to promote clear understanding of student growth and development and the nature of the learning process.

4. Develop, with the staff, schedules consistent with the curriculum objectives, individual student programs, the efficient use of personnel and physical facilities, with emphasis on the desirability of the resulting arrangements from the viewpoint of effective instruction.

5. Provide requisite structure, organizational machinery, time, and means for adequate instruction.

6. Provide ways and means for continuous experimentation, for curriculum improvement, and for coordinate achievements by publicizing and helping to focus attention on immediate goals and on implementation of agreements reached.

7. Clarify, coordinate, and summarize progress and disseminate information to all concerned groups or persons.

D. Systems Analysis. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Understand the basic tenets of systems analysis as it relates to public education.

2. Apply one systems analysis model (PPBS, PERT, etc.) to school administration.

3. Instruct others in the use of a systems analysis model in their discipline.

E. Data Processing for Management Decisions and Effective Operations. Demonstrates the ability to

1. See II, C., 3.

2. Utilize a knowledge of the various ways that data processing can be effective in school administration.

3. Communicate educational ideas to computer programmers so that functional programs can be developed.

4. Be aware of the shortcomings and limitations of data processing in school administration.

5. React and interpret data presented in a computer printout.

F. Organization of Public Education in California. Demonstrates the ability to

   1. Understand and operationalize the historical development and current organizational structure of California's public education.

   2. Explain the state-county-local organization of public education in California to patrons, staff members, and students.

   3. Cooperate and develop productive working relationships with other components of the educational structure and related public and private organizations concerned about education.

   4. Analyze changes in educational organization and to interpret these changes to staff and public.

G. School Finance. Demonstrates the ability to

   1. Determine the role of school finance in the district's educational program.

   2. Determine the sources of school revenue.

   3. Assist with the preparation of the school budget.

   4. Administer the capital outlay program and to supervise capital outlay needs.

   5. Administer the school purchasing program.

   6. Establish and supervise a system of accounting involving school money and property.

   7. Determine school insurance needs and to establish an insurance program commensurate with the needs.

E. School Law. Demonstrates the ability to

   1. Research sources of law as they relate to the operation of a school district.

   2. Apply judicial interpretation of substantive law to school situations.

3. Keep school personnel, governing board, and pupils informed of legal changes in school operation and to operationalize these changes.

4. Provide the governing board with leadership essential to its operation.

5. Provide leadership in establishing rights, duties, and privileges of school personnel, pupils, and parents.

6. Provide leadership in establishing rights, duties, liabilities and responsibilities of school personnel, pupils and parents.

I. Pupil Personnel. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Institute and maintain a system of child accounting and attendance.

2. Institute measures for the orientation of pupils.

3. Provide for counseling services.

4. Provide for occupational information, placement and follow-up services.

5. Utilize the resources of the community and other juvenile agencies in providing pupil personnel services.

6. Develop methods of dealing with pupil discipline.

7. Provide effective leadership in conferences involving parents and the school.

J. Staff Personnel and Contract Negotiations. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Provide for the recruitment of certificated and classified personnel.

2. Select and assign employees to their respective positions.

3. Develop and effective system of staff personnel records.

4. Provide for the formulation of employee personnel policies.

5. Conduct meaningful negotiations with employees.

6. Provide effective leadership in reaching agreement with employees.

7. Maintain effective communication with employees at different levels.

8. Develop and operationalize a system for evaluating school personnel.

K. Materials, Resources, and Equipment for the Instructional Program. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Organize the staff for the cooperative selection of materials and for their procurement, storage, allocation, and distribution.

2. Plan with the staff for the maximum use of materials and resources indigenuous to the environment.

3. Provide for periodic evaluation of materials and ways in which they are used.

4. Acquire knowledge of various types of teaching aids--visual equipment, audio equipment, resource units, educational trips, library and research materials, and environmental laboratories (schools and systems).

5. Develop skill in locating, judging the appropriateness of and in scheduling the use and distribution of available equipment and materials.

L. Physical Resources. Demonstrates the ability to

1. Translate educational programs and needs into physical resources required for affective implementation.

    a. to describe the relationships between physical resources and the educational program

    b. to list those physical resources which affect the educational program.

2. Present an organizational procedure to administer physical resources in a school and to give a rationale for that procedure.

3. Understand and describe those factors important to a building and grounds inspection.

4. Be conversant with recent and emergent developments in educational media and to explain the educational uses and values of each to the staff.

5. Participate effectively in considerations given to planning educational facilities.

UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND PLANNING PROGRAM

Master's of Education and Certificate of Advanced Study Programs in Educational Administration and Planning

Introduction to Statement of Objectives

The Educational Administration and Planning Program at the University of Vermont emphasizes general planning and management competencies required of personnel in leadership positions in educational organizations and other social service agencies. Although a major program stress is on systems theory, futuristics, and administrative and planning techniques and processes, emphasis is also given to value clarification and goal setting rooted in a humanistic philosophy.

The program does not attempt to prepare personnel for specific organizational roles (e.g. principal, superintendent). It is assumed that educational administration and planning positions and settings have many common competency requirements as represented in the program objectives.

The Program emphasizes leadership competencies, administrative skills, and planning capabilities required of persons employed in public, private or alternative schools, in local, state or federal education agencies, in social agencies, and in administrative positions in higher education. The central focus of the Program is on planning capabilities which will enable graduates to more effectively exert leadership to improve educational institutions and to utilize education as a primary vehicle through which is achieved the betterment of the larger society.

GENERAL PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

The Education Administration and Planning Program objectives will enable each student to progress through a cycle of (1) theoretical analysis, (2) hypothetical application, (3) practicum application, and (4) evaluation.

The courses, seminars, laboratory experiences, research projects, and independent study projects listed after each program objective have been determined as being most appropriate to that objective.

Spring, 1972

Within the framework of each program objective, the student with his or her advisor first specifies a specific objective(s) for each program objective. The specific objectives are based upon the student's prior academic and professional experience, interests and career goals with the advice and consent of the student's advisor.

Once a specific objective(s) has been defined the student with his or her advisor selects an appropriate course, seminar, laboratory experience, research project, and/or independent study project that will facilitate the student's achievement of the specific objective(s).

See the section on the Student Evaluation Process for details on evaluation.

Program Objective 1

The student will articulate a personal philosophy of education and social ethic and a logically related theory of learning and human motivation and development.

Examples of Operational Objectives

1. As a result of enrolling in Ed. 358, Seminar in Community Education Development, the student will propose in writing to his school board a curriculum design for senior citizens in his community. This design will be grounded in a theory of learning and human motivation and development derived from the student's philosophy of education and social ethic.

2. As a result of enrolling in Ed. 202, Philosophy of Education, the student will have developed a written statement depicting his social ethic and a logically related theory of learning and human motivation and development. This theory is to be applicable to a curriculum need within the student's school.

Facilitators for Program Objective 1

Ed. 202	Philosophy of Education
Ed. 253	Aesthetics of Education
Ed. 254	Anthropology of Education
Ed. 292	Issues in Contemporary Education
Ed. 295	Laboratory Experience in Education
Ed. 353	Inquiry Seminar in Educational Administration and Planning
Ed. 356, 357	Seminar in Future Cognition and Planning
Ed. 377	Seminar in Educational Psychology
Ed. 385	Seminar in Community Education Development
Ed. 397	Problems in Education

Program Objective 2

The student will systematically analyze the institutional and human dynamics of educational organizations, and plan processes and strategies for increasing organizational effectiveness, managing organizational conflict, and facilitating organizational change.

Examples

#1 At the conclusion of his enrollment in Ed. 354, 355, the student will demonstrate:

1. The application of general systems theory and concepts as a means of analyzing organizational phenomena.

2. The application of specific systems planning and management techniques to the solution of a real or hypothetical organizational problem (i.e. cost-benefit analysis, P BS, network analysis, etc.)

#2 In partial fulfillment of the requirements of Ed. 295 Laboratory Experience in Education (Negotiations) the student will demonstrate:

1. The ability to analyze the content (language) of written collectively negotiated agreements in terms of the advantages and disadvantages of such language for all parties concerned, and the implications of the language for the daily operations of the organization.
2. The ability to plan a strategy for collective negotiations in a real or simulated negotiations situation.

#3 In partial fulfillment of the requirements of Ed. 352 the student will analyze and describe an organizational dysfunction through the application of an appropriate conceptual model or process, and develop a plan for the resolution of the dysfunction.

Facilitators for Program Objective 2

Ed. 295	Laboratory Experience in Education (Ex. Negotiations)
Ed. 332	Seminar and Simulation Training in Educational Administration and Planning
Ed. 337	Political Processes in Education
Ed. 352	Analysis of Educational Organizations
Ed. 354, 355	Applications of Systems Theory and Techniques
Ed. 358	Seminar in Community Education Development

Program Objective 3

The student will utilize planning techniques and collaborative planning processes to facilitate interpersonal and group problem solving and decision making.

Examples

1. As a result of enrolling in Ed. 354, 355 (Systems Theory) the student will design a budget process for his school, based upon the systems approach.

2. As a result of enrolling in Ed. 356, 357 (Future Cognition) the student will use forecasting techniques to facilitate planning a new curriculum design for an educational organization.

Facilitators for Program Objective 3

Ed. 295	Laboratory Experience in Education (Ex. PPBS)
Ed. 332	Seminar and Simulation Training in Educational Administration and Planning
Ed. 335	Instructional Assessment and Staff Development
Ed. 337	Political Processes in Education
Ed. 352	Analysis of Educational Organizations
Ed. 354, 355	Applications of Systems Theory and Techniques to Administration and Planning
Ed. 358	Seminar in Community Education Development

Program Objective 4

The student will design, implement, and interpret research and evaluation processes and results, and apply these methods to organizational needs.

Examples

#1 In partial fulfillment of the requirements for Ed. 399, Research Methods in Education, the student will:

- 1.1 Critique sample research reports in terms of sampling techniques, design of study, statistical analysis, and conclusions drawn.

- 1.2 Identify minimum criteria for conducting a reliable research study.

- 1.3 Articulate various designs for quasi-experimental research.

#2 In fulfillment of Ed. 391, Masters Thesis Research or Ed. 397, Problems in Education the student will demonstrate the ability to identify an educational problem or situation, report related research, generate hypotheses or questions, develop an appropriate research or evaluation design, collect data, analyze data, and state conclusions.

Facilitators for Program Objective 4

Ed. 295	Laboratory Experiences in Education (Program Evaluation)
Ed. 319	Internship for Specialized Personnel in Education
Ed. 335	Instructional Assessment and Staff Development
Ed. 354, 355	Application of Systems Theory and Techniques to Administration and Planning
Ed. 391	Masters Thesis Research
Ed. 397	Problems in Education
Ed. 399	Research Methods in Education

Appropriate statistics or research design courses from the behavioral sciences.

Note: a. Selections from Ed. 292 Issues in Contemporary Education, Ed. 295 Laboratory Experience in Education, and Ed. 397 Problems in Education, must be carefully selected and designed to facilitate the achievement of the program objectives.

b. Ed. 353 is intended to ba a culminating seminar for all candidates.

Facilitators for all Program Objectives

1. The following instructional modules are developed for students to use in the achievement of their objectives under Ed. 295. They are:

   Program Evaluation Techniques
   Planning Programming Budgeting Systems
   Education Law
   Education Finance
   Human Relations
   Computer Applications
   Developing Skills in Proposal Writing
   Collective Negotiations

2. Students should note that facilitating courses and seminars from other program areas and departments may be selected to achieve any particular objective providing the student's advisor has agreed to the selection.

3. The Education Administration and Planning Program operates three research and development Centers. Students may find it helpful to consider utilizing activities from the Centers to facilitate the achievement of the student's objectives. The Centers are:
    1. Community Education Development Center
    2. Center for Comprehensive Planning
    3. National Center for Data Collection and Analysis for Ed/Ad/Ex Simulation Training and Research

4. Students may find it useful to enroll for part-time or full-time internship (Ed. 319) to facilitate the achievement of their objectives. Credit for internships is determined through a contractual agreement. Usually paid internships with a variety of educational organizations are available.

5. Any student planning graduate work beyond an M.Ed. should consider writing a thesis during his or her M.Ed. studies. M.Ed. thesis study is conducted under Ed. 391.

Portfolio Evaluation Process

The following is the student evaluation process for the M.Ed. and C.A.S. programs. The process is based on the following assumptions:

1. The primary purpose of evaluation is to provide information on the degree of achievement of objectives.

2. The process provides each student with the opportunity to design his or her program within the program's general guidelines.

3. The portfolio will provide the student and the college with an ongoing comprehensive record of his or her accomplishments.

4. Evaluation should be continuous. Therefore, this process has two review checkpoints and a terminal review.

Specific Program Objectives-Portfolio Process

1.1 The formation of the specific objectives will be a major task for the student during his or her first semester in the program. At the review checkpoints (or earlier) the student and his or her advisor will re-evaluate the specific objectives based upon the student's progress to date and any changes in career decisions.

The portfolio will consist of the following:

(a) For each specific objective:
    (1) The specific objective stated in operational terms.
    (2) The detailed project(s) necessary to accomplish the objective.
    (3) The evaluation criteria.

(b) At the completion of each objective both the student and the advisor or the particular faculty member involved in that project will provide evaluation reports on both the process undertaken and the outcomes of the process in terms of performance criteria.

(c) Appropriate documentation of specific projects will be placed in the portfolio appendices.

Review Procedures

2.1 The educational administration faculty will review a candidate's portfolio each time the candidate has completed twelve credit hours of work or every eighteen calendar months, whichever occurs first, and at the conclusion of the student's program. (for example, in a 30 or 36 credit hour program, a student's portfolio would be reviewed at the 12, 24, and 30 or 36 credit hour points.)

3.1 The educational administration faculty will meet with the candidate's advisor to make recommendations regarding the candidate's progress.

4.1 The advisor will (with the approval of the Program Chairman) select two faculty members to serve with him as a review committee to meet with the candidate. If appropriate one member of the review committee may be from another program or department within the University.

5.1 As a result of portfolio review, it may be determined that a student must add additional experiences to his program in order to accomplish a particular objective(s); or the results of the review may determine that a student, due to unsatisfactory performance, may be dropped from the program.

Appendix C

INSERVICE PROGRAMS

BELL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

PERSONAL/PROFESSIONAL GROWTH PLAN

Golden, Colo.

At Bell Junior High School in Jefferson County, Colorado we are striving to attain the following goals:

To organize our entire school and community to work more effectively.

To develop relationships between Bell students, parents and staff, which are characterized by openness, cooperation, mutual trust and shared power in decision making.

To improve communication, cooperation, and involvement between our school parents, patrons in the Golden area and support personnel in the district administration.

To assist in the development of a personally accountable growth plan for the attainment of the Bell Goals and Objectives.

OAL	SUGGESTED METHOD OF ACCOMPLISHMENT	SUGGESTED EVIDENCE THAT WILL BE SUBMITTED
1. OPEN COMMUNICATION	1.1 When someone expresses a concern, I will listen and clarify before I send my congruent message	1.1.1 Student survey 1.1.2 Faculty survey
	1.2 Identify two (2) people I have difficulty listening to and use active listening whenever I talk to them.	1.2.1 Feedback from the two individuals.
	1.3 Seek feedback at least 4 times a year from students, colleagues regarding my effectiveness in achieving Bell objectives, goals and student objectives and update my growth plan with the results.	1.3.1 Survey forms and results
	1.4 Develop unit teaching communication skills as part of my course work	1.4.1 Communication unit and it's evaluation.
2. PROBLEM SOLVING	2.1 Use the problem solving approach to establish stable limits for the school, my classroom and activities	2.1.1 List of stable limits. Develop for each situation.
		2.1.2 Feedback from survey to determine if students fee stable limits are theirs.
	2.2 Use problem solving to deal with concerns with students, teachers parents, and violations of the stable limits.	2.2.1 Diary of problem solving and results for a specific period of time.
	2.3 Introduce problem solving skills as part of the curriculum	2.3.1 The unit and its evaluation.

G[illegible]	SUGGESTED METHOD OF ACCOMPLISHMENT	SUGGESTED EVIDENCE THAT WILL BE SUMITTED
3. SHARED DECISION MAKING	3.1 Actively participate in making staff decisions and assuming the responsibility for the decisions arrived at.	3.1.1 Check list of votes or polls returned
		3.1.2 Feedback from staff on their observation of my participation and follow through.
	3.2 Participate on Long Range Planning Teams, "Z" groups and Establishment and implement plans.	3.2.1 List of responsibilities assumed.
		3.2.2 Evaluation of effectiveness by group members.
	3.3 Develop a plan to share the classroom decisions with students.	3.3.1 List of classroom duties a assumed by students.
		3.3.2 Keep a record of alteration made in the curriculum because of student input.
4. ACCOUNTABILITY	4.1 Identify the basic academic skills in my subject area and provide opportunities for students to successfully master the skills	4.1.1 Outline of major goals and objectives and skills to be achieved for each subject taught.
		4.1.2 Document through student proficiency examinations the degree of competency for each student.
		4.1.3 Student survey to determine the student's feelings of academic success.
		4.1.4 Parent survey to determine the parent's feelings of their student's academic success.

GOAL	SUGGESTED METHOD OF ACCOMPLISHMENT	SUGGESTED EVIDENCE THAT WILL BE SUBMITTED
	4.2 Be accountable for supplies, materials, department duties, students and teachers assigned to me.	4.2.1 Evaluation by appropriate people as to how well responsibilities were carried out. (ex: budget chairman, attendance, etc.)
	4.3 Carry out basic school policies processes and objectives	4.3.1 Feedback from colleagues.
		4.3.2 Successful completion of growth plan.
	4.4 Develop with the students, a growth plan and assist them to gain skills in the processes and to work toward attaining student objectives.	4.4.1 Self-evaluation of student progress
		4.4.2 Number of students who developed and carried out growth plans.
5. COOPERATION (could be listed under each process.)	5.1 When having difficulty with any of the processes, I will seek assistance.	5.1.1 Occasion listed with the results.

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA		EVIDENCE OF MOVING TOWARD ACCOMPLISHMENT
1. EVALUATION		
1.15 Evaluative Feedback cont.		Explanation of the process and the document developed will be presented by Ken Kelly as evidence. Student evaluation of teachers Three staff members have asked students to evaluate their teaching effectiveness. Forms and procedures used will be presented by Gerald Prince.
1.16 The principal is able to demonstrate ways in which teachers are using assessment methods to identify the cognitive, affective and psychomotor needs and/or desires of students	1.16	No evidence available of assessment being used to identify affective or psychomotor needs or desires of students. Dwight Cool, R-1 Research Dept., has arranged through Special Services to provide for achievement testing of all Bell students in the areas of mathematics, language arts and study skills. These tests were administered on April 28, 29, 30 and May 1. Data from these test scores will be used by teachers in placement of students next fall. Also, Mr. Cool has arranged for all incoming sixth graders to be tested in their respective elementary schools this spring. Mr. Dwight Cool will explain the above as evidence of moving toward implementation of this objective.
1.17 The principal is able to identify ways in which teachers are providing students with opportunities for self-evaluation	1.17	A Pilot Program Mrs. Betsy Knight, Language Arts teacher, is organizing classes to allow students the opportunity for self-evaluation.

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA	EVIDENCE OF MOVING TOWARD ACCOMPLISHMENT
1. EVALUATION	
1.17 Self-evaluation, cont.	Mrs. Betsy Knight will explain the process she is piloting as well as the forms she is using.
1.19 The principal is able to demonstrate that a variety of evaluative procedures are available for staff members to select from to assess individual effectiveness	1.19 Alternative methods for staff evaluation If students are to be treated as individuals so should staff members. In small group meetings, staff members were asked to identify alternative methods in which they could be evaluated. The staff suggested five basic methods. A handout of methods developed as well as the evaluative instrument developed from staff feedback will be presented by G. Carnie as evidence.
1.20 The principal is able to demonstrate that he solicits evaluative feedback concerning his administrative effectiveness.	1.20 Climate Survey and Faculty Meeting Feedback See 1.14 for a description of the Climate Survey. This instrument included many items of feedback on effectiveness of the principal. Evaluation forms have been given after selected staff meetings to gain feedback on how meetings could be made more meaningful. Based on this feedback, a majority of staff meetings are now held in small groups. Also, an attempt has been made to include "administrivia" on bulletins rather than take up valuable time. Feedback forms used and changes made in faculty meetings will be presented as evidence by G. Carnie.

6 C

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA	EVIDENCE OF MOVING TOWARD ACCOMPLISHMENT
3. INSTRUCTION	
3.23 Serving others, cont.	Application forms, names of students involved and the description of the program written in the May 4 PTA by Mrs. Rosemary Baring will provide evidence. Further evidence will be presented by K. Kelly, program coordinator. Golden High School Student Assistants. This program existed prior to January 1970. However, the number of student assistants has been decreased. We anticipate involving many more students from Golden High School during the next school year. Report by J. Miller. Service Club Project. A service club sponsored by Mrs. J. Mack with 15 students, organized a school-wide clothing collection drive for the Ridge Home (school for mentally retarded located on Ward Road, Jefferson County). One-half pickup load of clothing was collected and delivered. Report by J. Mack. Speech Department. On March 23, a group of speech students traveled to Villa Manor Nursing Home, 7950 West Mississippi, Jefferson County, to present a 2-1/2 hour program. 31 speech students, with their instructor, Mrs. Lauren Floyd, traveled on March 20 to Wyatt Elementary in Northeast Denver (3620 Franklin St.) to present a program to a school of 1,000 predominately black and hispanic elementary school children. The letter received from the principal will be presented as evidence. Report by G. Carnie.

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA	EVIDENCE OF MOVING TOWARD ACCOMPLISHMENT
3. INSTRUCTION	
3.24 The principal is able to demonstrate that the instructional program is becoming increasingly responsive to the needs of students for successful learning experiences at their own levels of activity	3.24 Continuous progress reading Thirty-two performance based learning packages have been developed in the reading laboratory by Mrs. J. Mack with the assistance of resource people. These packages will be submitted as well as explained by J. Mack as evidence.
3.25 The principal is able to demonstrate that reward rather than punishment is the primary means used to influence student behavior	3.25 Faculty Discipline Team Report and SEE Workshop Very little evidence is available at this time which would indicate that this objective is being met. However, the Discipline team report (1.14) is indication that a program is being designed and implemented to move toward accomplishment of this objective. The major school activity to assist with development of a plan of reward as the primary means used to influence behavior was a 1-week (30 hour) counseling workshop in Self-Enhancing Education held April 20-25. Twenty-four staff members voluntarily participated in the workshop. In addition, each staff member is keeping a record of successes and failures with workshop skills such as problem-solving, reflective listening, reducing authoritarian direction and substituting responsible behavior, the practice of honest congruent sending or as the students put it, "Tell it like it is with me!" and to provide opportunities for each child

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA	EVIDENCE OF MOVING TOWARD ACCOMPLISHMENT
4. STUDENT ACTIVITIES	
4.16 The principal is able to demonstrate the manner in which students, staff, and the general community are involved in designing the student activities program	4.16 Design of Student Activities Program and Honor Society The Coordinating Council will be the vehicle for implementation of change in this area. The Honor Society students, under the direction of Miss Dorothy Campbell, completely changed the initiation procedures at their April 27th meeting. Instead of reading a "canned" ceremony, students chose to debate the value of Honor Society. Selection procedures bring out both the positive and negative aspects of the organization before an audience of 250 parents and friends.
4.19 The principal is able to describe specific procedures used to insure the opportunity for all students to have friends.	4.19 Opportunity for Friends Ed Brainard has developed an interview form which all new students fill out three days after arrival at Bell and again three months to determine if the new student has made friends. These interviews are conducted by Gerald Prince. The forms and description of the above process will be explained by Ed Brainard. Ken Kelly and Chuck Kettering have on a limited basis been running pilot programs to attempt to build understanding and communication across cliques within the school. Students were selected from among three groups --the top students, the middle group and the students

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA	EVIDENCE OF MOVING TOWARD ACCOMPLISHMENT
5. ADMINISTRATION	
[illegible] cont. [illegible] priorities [illegible] and that faculty [illegible] appropriate [illegible] were involved in its development	1. Staff determined instrutional needs based on program objectives. 2. Department conferences with the principal were held to translate needs into dollars. 3. Money was allocated to each department with the approval and prior knowledge of the total staff. Explanation of the above process by G. Carnie.
5.17 The principal is able to demonstrate that procedures have been established for regularly identifying and reporting facilities in need of correction	5.17 Facility Repair Delegated to Mrs. Audrey Noorlun, Head Secretary
5.18 The principal is able to demonstrate that inventory procedures and district audit provisions have been implemented.	5.18 Inventory and Audit Delegated to Mrs. Audrey Noorlun, Head Secretary
5.19 The principal is able to identify specific feedback from staff concerning needed changes in district and school level business and administrative procedures	5.19 Changes Needed in Central Office Business and Administrative Procedures Documentation of Central Office procedures that seem to interfere with school operation is being maintained. It is not appropriate at this time to make public such a list until those involved have had the opportunity to work out the solution.

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RICHARD D. SHEPARDSON

A Survey (Utilizing the Delphi Method) To Assess and Objectively Display the Arguments for and Against Developing a Performance-Based Teacher Education Program

The intent of this article is to show how the Delphi technique can be utilized to enhance the decision-making process and to suggest how it can be used in a variety of situations.[1]

The Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Texas at Austin has been faced with the decision as to whether or not a performance-based teacher education program should be developed. The Delphi technique was used in an attempt to define the arguments that were being batted around in the debate. This technique, which has been used chiefly as a predictive agent and is comparatively new to education, is designed to utilize expertise without creating the need for a face-to-face confrontation. The general procedure followed in most studies is to select a group of experts to serve as the Delphi panel. Helmer suggests criteria that can be used in selecting individuals to serve on such a panel.[2] In the present survey, the concept of the panel was broadened to include the entire faculty of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction.

After the participants have been selected, they are usually asked to respond to a series of questionnaires, each containing feedback of information from the preceding one. Referred to by Gordon as "controlled interaction," this feedback, which can be in the form of requested information, the collective reaction of the participants to a given point, or supporting reasons for a certain position, is intended to stimulate a rethinking and

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[1] Cyphert, F. R., and Gant, W. L. "The Delphi Technique: A Tool for Collecting Opinions in Teacher Education." *The Journal of Teacher Education* 21: 417-27; Fall 1970.

Mr. Shepardson is a doctoral candidate, University of Texas at Austin.

[2] Helmer, O. "An Experimental Application of the Delphi Method to the Use of Experts." *Management Science* 9: 458; 1963.

an examination of original ideas.[3] The sequence is followed until some type of consensus has been reached.

In analyzing the arguments as to whether or not a performance-based teacher education program should be developed, there was no attempt to reach a consensus. The main intent was to identify and display the arguments and to give each faculty member a chance to react to the validity and significance of the arguments presented. The initial step of the survey was the distribution of a questionnaire soliciting the arguments for or against the development of a performance-based program. One hundred and twenty-one arguments were developed in the 27 forms returned, which were then classified under general headings (i.e., *for*—performance tasks would clarify general goals; *against*—performance tasks would lead to the development of a narrow, rigid philosophy of teaching). After all the arguments had been sorted out, the plan was to send them back to the faculty so that they could evaluate each one on its validity and significance. Those that basically said the same thing were combined to avoid excessive duplication, and the resulting generic arguments were displayed in two groups under the headings *for* and *against*. Forty-one were listed *for* the development of a performance-based teacher education program and thirty-five *against*.

The two sets of arguments were distributed to each faculty member in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, who was asked to rate each one according to its validity and to give a significance rating to those he considered valid. When the forms were returned, the ratings were tabulated, and a summary sheet was prepared for each set of arguments, which were then ranked according to their validity ratings. The arguments in their ranked order, along with their individual total ratings, were sent back to the faculty.

Along with these summaries, a third questionnaire was distributed that asked the faculty members to indicate the value of restructuring each specific course area (i.e., elementary science education, secondary mathematics, etc.) along the lines of a performance-based program. When these forms were returned, the results were tabulated; and a final summary, containing a description of the survey, the scores of the five highest-rated arguments, and the composite ratings for restructuring the course areas along the lines of a performance-based program, was prepared and distributed.

The part of the summary dealing with the specific arguments for and against the development of a performance-based teacher education program probably has the broadest application. To give a better idea of the type of arguments developed, the five receiving the highest validity ratings in each area are listed below:

Against:

1. The specification of goals and performance objectives for a teacher education program does not by itself make a program. There are many aspects of a truly individualized humanistic teacher education program that go beyond the specification of objectives in the cognitive and affective domains. There is a need for people to work together for a common goal that all agree to both philosophically and in action.
2. There is the danger in a performance-based program to work only with those performances that can initially be identified and specified. If allowances are not made for easy modification of the program, the result could be one dealing with trivial skills and

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[3] Gordon, T. J. *The Future.* New York: St. Martin's Press, 1965.

inadequate in preparing effective teachers.

3. Some goals cannot be specified in behavioral terms. Teaching should not be restricted to just those things that can be stated behaviorally. Behavioral goals are a straw man that will restrict teaching to a series of extrinsic goals for the student. Intrinsic goals are what the students today feel are relevant. The factors of humanness (the judgments that people make about other human beings) cannot be omitted.
4. A performance-based program should not be the only type introduced. Several possible programs should be implemented and then researched for effectiveness.
5. The department should not be committed to a performance-based program before consensus is reached on what behaviors students must know before they teach.

For

1. A behavioral statement of course and program objectives will provide students with a better understanding of the program as a whole and the specific expectations held for them. This, in turn, will allow them to choose from a variety of alternatives the courses and steps they wish to take to fulfill the program goals or competencies.
2. Minimum criteria for students could be defined.
3. The analysis of the task and the defining of the destination make the job of selecting the appropriate vehicle more accessible.
4. With an entire department focused on certain desired skills, teachers are more likely to enter teaching possessing these skills.
5. If minimum performances are specified for the students, it is much easier to diagnose and prescribe remedial measures and to work with individuals than it is to guess at where they might be or what they don't understand.

Two outcomes of this survey should not be overlooked:

1. There was a divergent array of arguments that were not channeled along one specific train of thought but that attacked the issue from many different angles.
2. The survey stimulated considerable fluency. An opportunity was provided to examine and react not only to the arguments of the vocal faculty members but to those of all who wished to contribute. It is doubtful whether a regular staff meeting would have provided this type of flexibility. Almost certainly, debate on one or two specific points would have prevented the emergence and analysis of other important arguments. The fact that this procedure can develop such fluency and flexibility is impressive and demonstrates that it has much to offer in making problem solving and decision making a more creative and effective process.

4. Job Competencies of the School Business Administrator

JOB COMPETENCIES OF THE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL BUSINESS OFFICIAL[1]

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Editor's Note: Our 1970 theme is "Excellence: Our Continuing Professional Commitment."

If we have a professional commitment, that implies that we have and know certain job competencies. The 59 job competencies of the effective school business official were determined by the author as he accomplished his doctoral dissertation at the School of Education, State University of New York at Buffalo, in 1965. Since we have never published them, and because they are a very definite contribution to the literature in our field, it is a pleasure to publish this important list of job competencies.

The important question is: After reading the following list, can we all classify as "effective"? – Dr. Charles W. Foster, Editor.

1. Is capable of developing and administering an adequate, safe, and economical insurance program.
2. Is capable of writing job descriptions and job specifications for non-instructional positions.
3. Is skilled in specification writing.
4. Is capable of relating educational philosophy to the area of business services.
5. Is proficient in the use of projection techniques such as financial trends, student enrollments, site and building needs, etc.
6. Is capable of developing and administering a program for the effective storage, inventory and distribution of supplies and equipment.
7. Is capable of developing and administering a thorough-going program for the selection of non-instructional personnel.
8. Is proficient in the use of procedures and techniques involved in job analysis.
9. Is proficient in the use of procedures and techniques involved in plant security.
10. Is proficient in the use of procedures, techniques and scales involved in evaluating non-instructional employee performance.
11. Is capable of applying generally accepted accounting principles and procedures to the specific areas of school accounting.
12. Is skilled in public relations procedures and techniques.
13. Is capable of developing and administering an efficient custodial program.
14. Is skilled in preparing, presenting, administering, and appraising school budgets.
15. Is proficient in the use of techniques for determining adequacy of personnel and work loads.
16. Is capable of administering an internal auditing program.
17. Is capable of using diplomacy and tact in working with people.
18. Is proficient in the use of basic legal references.
19. Is capable of delegating responsibility together with commensurate authority.
20. Is capable of establishing and maintaining effective communication with community agencies, the board of education and staff.
21. Is capable of applying the principles of "democratic administration."
22. Is proficient in the proper and efficient utilization of his staff.
23. Is capable of participating in community affairs and planning.

(Continued on next page.)

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[1] Hazuda, Dr. Michael L.. "Perceived Competencies of New York State School Business Officials and the Importance of these Competencies to Effective Performance as Perceived by Education and Civil Service School Business Officials." Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, School of Education, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1965. pp. 64-69.

COMPETENCIES (Continued from Page 131)

24. Is capable of organizing written material logically and presenting it effectively.

25. Is proficient in the use of graphic techniques.

26. Is capable of coping with special interest and pressure groups.

27. Is skilled in solving human relations problems.

28. Is skilled in data gathering techniques.

29. Is capable of acting as a resource person to teachers and administrators in the area of purchasing.

30. Is capable of developing and administering an adequate personnel records system for non-instructional personnel.

31. Is skilled in the art of public speaking.

32. Is skilled in the use of statistical methods and procedures.

33. Is capable of developing and administering a plan for the effective orientation of new non-instructional personnel.

34. Is capable of motivating staff personnel in the development of proper attitudes toward the educational objectives of the school.

35. Is proficient in forms design and control.

36. Is capable of establishing and maintaining a satisfactory working relationship between non-teaching and the professional staff.

37. Is capable of acting as a resource person to the cafeteria manager in the area of personnel management, purchasing, accounting and reporting.

38. Is capable of developing and administering a systematic program for the in-service training of non-instructional personnel.

39. Is capable of developing and administering an efficient maintenance program.

40. Is capable of encouraging high morale among the business office staff.

41. Is proficient in the use of techniques, procedures and practices regarding assessments, equalization ratios, and taxation.

42. Is capable of handling responsibilities for or acting as a resource person to the director of transportation in the areas of purchasing, personnel management, accounting and reporting.

43. Is capable of developing and administering a sound procurement program.

44. Is capable of establishing and maintaining a positive and constructive relationship with his chief school officer.

45. Is skilled in locating essential information relative to a particular program.

46. Is skilled in planning, organizing and evaluating office operations.

47. Is proficient in the use of procedures, techniques, and scales involved in evaluating school buildings.

48. Is skilled in the preparation of financial statements and reports.

49. Is capable of supervising wisely the personnel under his supervision.

50. Is skilled in the procedures and techniques connected with investments, borrowing money and the issuance and redemption of school bonds.

51. Is skilled in overseeing school construction projects in terms of approved plans.

52. Is capable of getting work done through the efforts of others.

53 Is capable of making decisions.

54. Is capable of securing and coordinating the services of educational and technical specialists such as bonding attorneys, architects, and educational consultants.

55. Is proficient in the use of cost analysis techniques.

56. Is proficient in the use of procedures and techniques involved in school plant planning.

57. Is capable of treating confidential information confidentially.

58. Is capable of providing technical assistance in the formulation of wage and salary plans for non-instructional personnel.

59. Is skilled in research procedures and techniques.

Appendix D

HOW CAN COMPETENCIES BE ASSESSED?

"How Can Competencies Be Assessed?" by Dale L. Bolton, which appears on the following pages was developed as a part of a larger project involving leaders in the University Council for Educational Administration and leaders in the Atlanta Public School system. The paper, along with seven additional ones, will be published sometime in 1973 under the title, *Performance Criteria for Principals: Concepts and Instruments*. It will be edited by Jack Culbertson, Curtis Hensen and Ruel Morrison.

EVALUATING SCHOOL PROCESSES AND PRODUCTS: A RESPONSIBILITY OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Dale L. Bolton
University of Washington

051972

Among the many responsibilities of school principals is the evaluation of school processes and products, i.e., the procedures used within the school as well as the results of these procedures. As discussed here, the evaluation of school processes and products:

1. is a cyclical and iterative process;
2. involves input, process, and outcome areas;
3. involves a consideration of several people's processes and products;
4. involves interrelated subsystems;
5. must provide for the capability to determine direction, take action and acquire support, monitor processes and make intermediate decisions, provide support to the processes, and make terminal decisions;
6. involves self evaluation plus evaluation by outsiders; and
7. includes common objectives and processes plus objectives related to a specific situation.

The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief description of each of these seven key features of evaluating school processes and products, to discuss the implications of the interrelationships of these key features, and to suggest a means for managing information needed to evaluate a principal's effectiveness in this domain.

Cyclical and Iterative Process

Many people think of evaluation as that activity which occurs at a given point in time where a judgment is made regarding the value of a certain person's performance or the value of something which is produced. Or, evaluation is perceived as the act of completing a form which expresses a summary judgment regarding activities or outcomes during a time period. Evaluation includes these summary judgments, of course, but to conceive of it solely in these terms is to ignore the major portion of the activity. In addition, several purposes are not accomplished (e.g., the providing of systematic, frequent feedback so errors can be corrected), and debilitating side effects such as negative attitudes on the part of the evaluatee often are noted.

Rather than consisting of a single phase, evaluation consists of multiple phases. The phases are sequential and cyclical, repeating themselves in an iterative fashion and building on the information and activities of the prior cycle. Because judgments are based on information collected, and because this information which is collected should be purposeful, the phases of evaluation may be considered to consist of the following:

1. a preparation, or pre information collection phase, which involves analysis of a specific situation, establishment of purposes for evaluation, setting of specific goals and objectives, and deciding on means for measuring the eventual outcomes and the processes used;

2. an operation, or information collection phase, which involves observation and monitoring of the activity planned; and

3. a decision, or post information collection phase, which includes communication regarding the analysis and interpretation of information as well as making decisions regarding next steps to be taken.

The third phase becomes a natural prelude into the first phase and the repetition of the cycle. The information analyzed during the third phase provides the basis for reviewing the situation and resetting of goals and objectives. The process can be displayed pictorally by Figure 1.1.

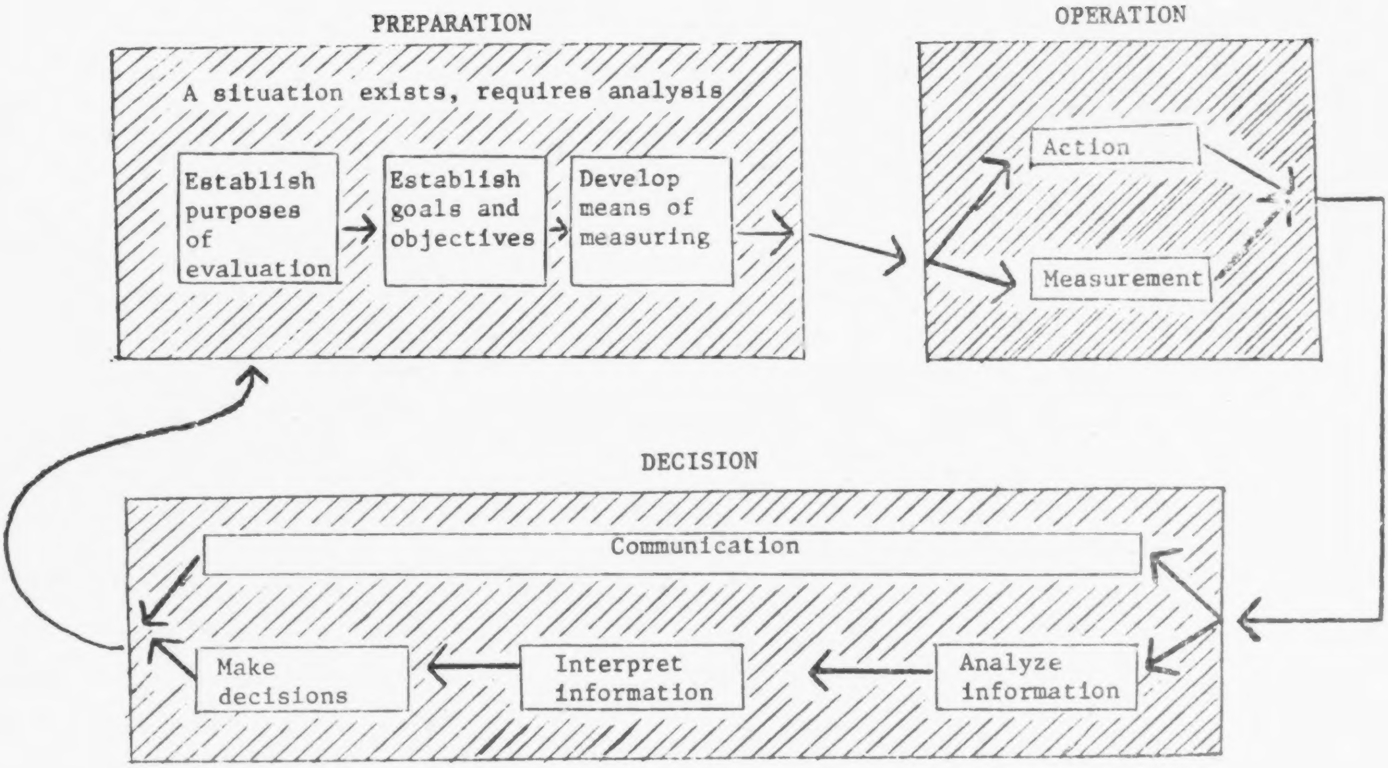

PREPARATION
A situation exists, requires analysis
Establish purposes of evaluation
Establish goals and objectives
Develop means of measuring
OPERATION
Action
Measurement
DECISION
Communication
Make decisions
Interpret information
Analyze information

Figure 1.1. Evaluation of school processes and products: a three-phase, cyclical process.

Preparation phase. Examination of the type of situation which exists provides information necessary for decisions regarding the purposes of evaluation, the appropriate goals and objectives, and the type of measurement which is appropriate. Minimal considerations should include the type of neighborhood being served, the nature of the students, the type of learning environment and facility, the traditions of the particular school, and the type of faculty and support system available.

The purposes of evaluation are multiple, rather than singular. Many problems may be avoided by openly discussing all of these purposes rather than allowing some of the purposes to be considered as hidden agenda which emerge during the decision phase of the evaluation process. Accomplishment of purposes of evaluation is directly related to the commitment to the activities involved. However, agreement on purposes contributes to such commitment, and open discussion among the people involved contributes to agreement on purposes. Therefore, open discussion of real purposes of evaluation tends to do two things: (a) bring about agreement regarding these purposes, and (b) alleviate fears that there are hidden purposes beyond those expressed. Since the purposes of evaluation must be determined for specific local situations, rather than imposed by external experts, a definitive list which fits all situations cannot be recommended. However, consideration should be given at least to the following:

1. to change goals or objectives
2. to modify procedures
3. to determine new ways of implementing procedures
4. to improve performance of individuals
5. to supply information for modification of assignments
6. to protect individuals or the school system
7. to reward superior performance
8. to provide a basis for career planning and individual growth and development

9. to validate the selection process
10. to facilitate self evaluation

Establishing goals and specific objectives for the situation being considered involves a determination of what is important for that particular situation. Because a principal is responsible for what happens in a given building, he must consider the uniqueness of the building and the individual teachers and students within that building. In spite of the uniqueness of the specific situations, building goals must be compatible with district goals, and teacher objectives should be compatible with building goals. Because of these needs for compatibility and because of the divergence of views of people, the goal setting activity must involve agreements and reconciliations regarding the appropriateness of targets. In addition, the setting of goals and objectives is not complete until agreements are reached regarding what resources will be made available for accomplishment of these objectives. In effect, it is one thing to agree that a certain amount of achievement should be accomplished by a given set of learners (a product or outcome) and that a given set of procedures will be used in order to accomplish this outcome. It is quite another thing to reach agreement regarding the resources which are available (such as audiovisual equipment, money for transportation for field trips, consultant help, planning time, etc.) to produce the achievement desired. But well-established objectives include a consideration of resources needed to do the task. When agreements are reached prior to action, there is a much better chance that agreement can be reached regarding processes and products at the decision stage.

Developing means for measuring includes a determination of what information will be collected, how it will be collected, an understanding of the limits involved in collecting data, and an agreement on the procedures to be used. Since the principal is involved in collecting information regarding both procedures and products, he must establish a procedure for making decisions concerning all of these aspects of measurement on: (a) student outcomes, (b) teacher procedures, and (c) principal procedures (more about this later). The important consideration at this point is to emphasize that the development of measurement should occur before action is taken and before information is collected. This is essential to prevent contamination of criteria for judging with the results which have occurred. (This is what happens in Boy Scout cookouts when the potatoes get burned and the cook suddenly determines that "This is just the way I like them.")

Operation Phase. This phase consists of two parts: (a) taking action planned during the initial phase, and (b) collection of information regarding what happens during the action. In a school situation, the action consists mainly of teaching and supporting acts. The supporting acts by the teacher include those activities outside the classroom which are necessary to accomplish all of the tasks for which the teacher is responsible--in some locations this would include such things as explanation of programs to groups of parents, individual parent conferences, development of curricular materials and activities, and devising educational specifications for specialized portions of new school buildings. The supporting acts of the principal include those activities which are designed to improve the processes of the teacher and which are necessary to provide the environment desired for students and teachers.

Measurement during this phase includes all of the collection of information which is necessary to make decisions regarding whether goals and objectives are accomplished. It includes such activities as classroom observation, out-of-classroom observation, administration of student tests, recording of student observations, acquisition of information from parents and students, self report information from teachers, and recording of activities by means of audio and television recording devices.

Decision phase. This phase consists of the analysis and interpretation of information collected during the operation phase, and making decisions on the basis of this information. Throughout the phase communication occurs.

Analysis and interpretation of information includes an examination of procedures which have been used by the teachers in the classroom, outside of the classroom, and by administrators in and out of classrooms; the information, of course, has been collected from many sources. Prior to this time, it has been possible to examine information regarding part of what has happened. However, if decisions are to be meaningful and helpful to the people involved, meaning must be attached to the total information collected, rather than following the often erroneous practice of reaching closure prior to careful and complete collection and analysis of data. It is during this interpretation process that potential causes of problems are identified, since these hunches regarding potential problems derive from careful examination of the procedures followed.

A precise analysis and interpretation of outcomes (results of the procedures followed) occurs during this phase of the evaluation process. Teachers want to know whether student achievement, behaviors, and affective outcomes such as attitudes and interests were as great as the targets they set. On the other hand, principals are concerned with whether results of their inservice training and supervision were what they expected. During this phase, decisions will be made regarding the following questions:

1. Were the outcomes (product) satisfactory?
2. Were the goals reasonable?
3. Were the procedures implemented as planned?
4. Were the procedures (as initially designed) effective?
5. What should be the next steps?

The first question involves a comparison of outcomes with initial goals. The second question involves a judgment regarding reasonableness, using the perspective of hindsight and all of the information regarding how the system performed since the goals were set. The third question involves a comparison of actual procedures with those planned during the first phase of the evaluation process. The fourth cannot be answered unless procedures discussed during the first phase were actually implemented, and therefore involves an examination of both procedures and products. The answer to the fifth question is based on the complete analysis and interpretation of information regarding the product and process, and includes a determination of whether to change goals, initiate controls over the implementation of the process, or change the procedures being used.

Input, process, output

An examination of the evaluation of processes and products of schools as explained in the prior section of this paper indicates that it is closely allied to systems analysis procedures which examine input, process, and output. In systems analysis procedures, evaluation is made for the purpose of providing feedback regarding both process and output. Feedback is usually in terms of discrepancy, or differences between standards and actual performance. Since the discrepancy is concerned with both process and output, one of the necessities of evaluation in systems analysis procedures is establishment of standards. Such standards are established on the basis of a careful analysis of the input. Figure 2.1 illustrates a systems model involving input, process, and output.

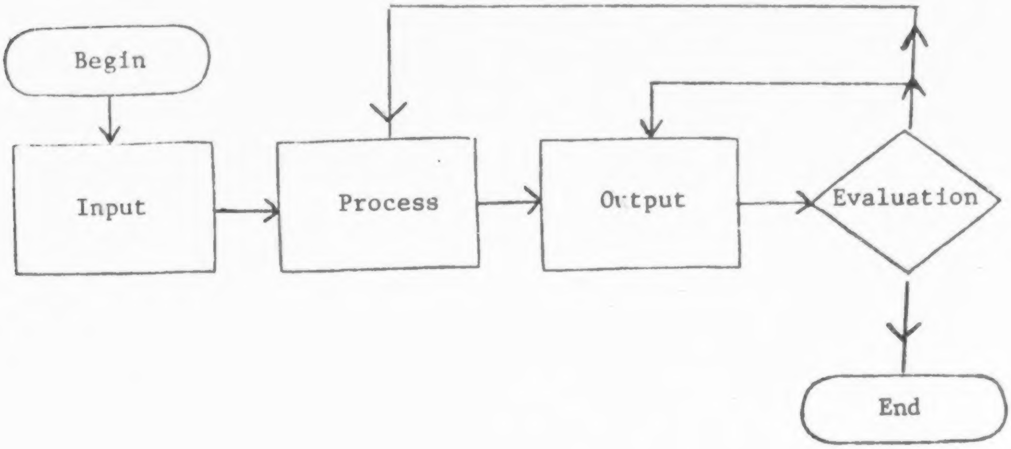


Figure 2.1. A systems model involving input, process, and output.

The input stage is critical in terms of determining standards for both processes and output; the process stage is crucial because of the need to maintain process standards; and the output stage is important because one acquires evidence regarding whether he has accomplished what he desired to accomplish. But if the standards are established at the input stage, how is this accomplished?

Two types of variables are considered to determine the products desired: situational factors, and values. Two factors should be considered when determining what processes are likely to produce the outcomes desired: a logical analysis of the functions and tasks related to the outcomes, and an examination of what "good" personnel have done in similar situations. The relationships among these factors are illustrated in Figure 2.2.

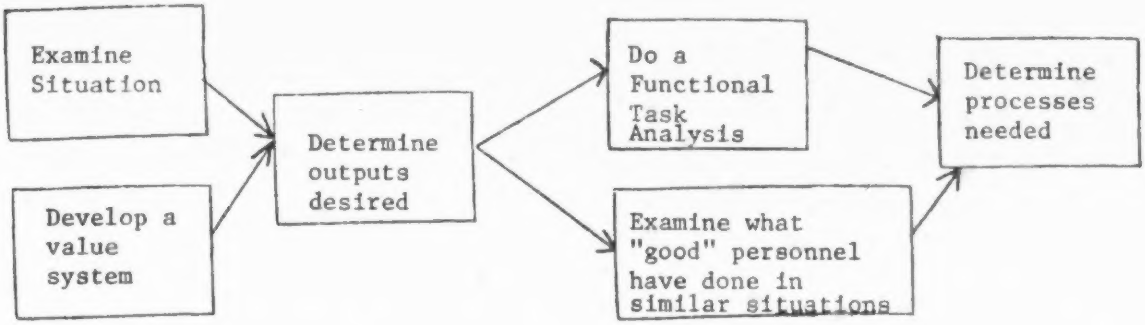

Examine Situation
Develop a value system
Determine outputs desired
Do a Functional Task Analysis
Examine what "good" personnel have done in similar situations
Determine processes needed

Figure 2.2. Relationships among factors related to output and process standards.

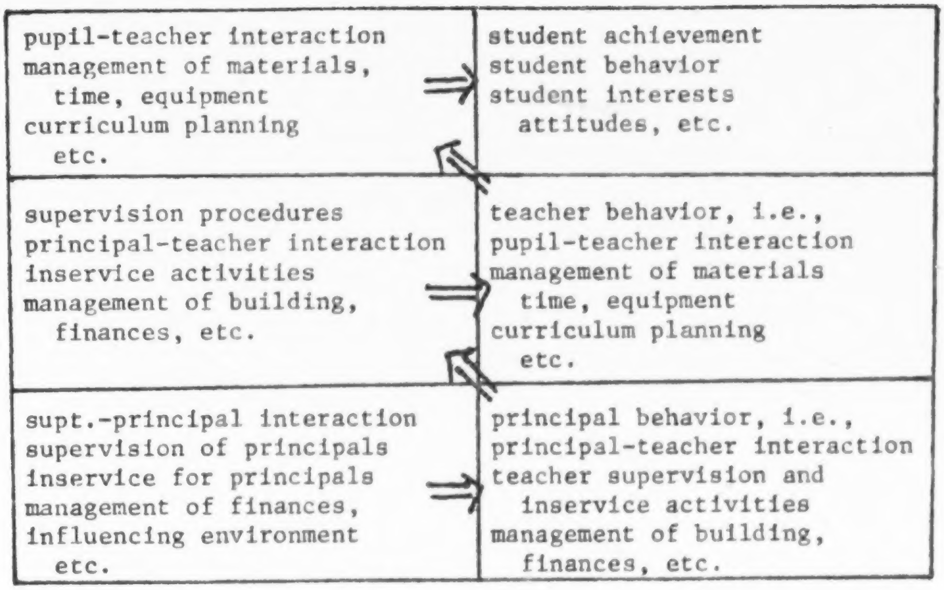
Figure 2.2. illustrates the necessity of applying a value system to specific situational factors prior to determination of outputs desired (i.e., output standards). Likewise, it illustrates the necessity of meshing the logic which a specialist (e.g., in curriculum or management) might apply to a situation to determine what processes might be used with the practical experience which has been acquired by people in similar situations. Some people make the error of asking all practitioners (regardless of how well they perform or whether they are in similar situations) to answer questionnaires about the efficacy of particular processes in lieu of the functional task analysis and the information from successful practitioners. It is proposed that such information is of questionable value in comparison with that proposed in Figure 2.2.

Systems analysts are careful to propose that those who engage in one phase of the systems model are not necessarily those engaged in other phases. For example, those individuals who are responsible for establishing standards at the input stage may not be the ones responsible for completing the process; still others may have responsiblity for evaluation and providing feedback regarding the process and output standards. The model itself does not suggest a division of labor which is likely to work across various situations, so such decisions must be made for each situation in a manner compatible with the total managerial style of the system.

Several People's Processes and Products

When one considers the evaluation of school processes and products, it is necessary to realize that there are many products and not all personnel are working to affect these products directly. Whereas the teacher is directly responsible for outputs related to student behavior and achievement, the principal's procedures are only indirectly related to such products. Figure 3.1 illustrates the idea that some people's products are other's processes.

The significance of ideas embodied in Figure 3.1 is that the functions and responsibilities of the principal are not focused directly on students. He may measure the discrepancy between product standards and actual products in terms of processes used by the teacher rather than in pupil gain. This means that the direct desired output of his inservice program is to affect teacher behavior. He is also responsible for monitoring the teacher process-product relationship in such a manner that he knows whether teacher behavior is producing student changes that are desired by the school and the system, but such monitoring simply provides him with data which will help to identify



	Process	Product
teacher	pupil-teacher interaction management of materials, time, equipment curriculum planning etc.	student achievement student behavior student interests attitudes, etc.
principal	supervision procedures principal-teacher interaction inservice activities management of building, finances, etc.	teacher behavior, i.e., pupil-teacher interaction management of materials time, equipment curriculum planning etc.
superintendent (his office)	supt.-principal interaction supervision of principals inservice for principals management of finances, influencing environment etc.	principal behavior, i.e., principal-teacher interaction teacher supervision and inservice activities management of building, finances, etc.

Figure 3.1. The relationship among teacher, principal, and superintendent processes and products.

differing teacher processes (his product) and principal processes which will have a high probability of assisting teachers in changing their behavior.

Working directly with teachers to improve their teaching techniques does not encompass all of the responsibilities of the principal. He is expected to produce outcomes in a variety of areas, and he is expected to use a variety of processes. Figure 3.2 illustrates several outcome areas and processes which are recognized as needed in each of these outcome areas.

Each cell of the figure represents an outcome area and a process which might be related to it. By examining each cell of the figure, a principal can identify the outcomes desired and suggest specific processes which might assist him in accomplishing these objectives. For example, one of the cells

OUTCOME AREAS ↓	Communicating	Initiating Change	Resolving Conflict	Making Decisions	Negotiating	Supervising & Evaluating	Building Morale
Curriculum & Instruction							
Staff Personnel							
Pupil Personnel							
Finance, Bus. Mgt.							
School Plant, Services							
Sch.-Community Relations							
Research Services							

PROCESSES →

Figure 3.2. Outcome (product) areas and processes related to responsibilities of school principals.

relating to school community relations is that of communicating. This might involve newspaper articles, oral reports to parents, and a regularly scheduled school newsletter cooperatively developed with the PTA. If a principal develops specific outcomes that he considers important in this cell, then he and his supervisor can determine whether the standard which he has established has been attained.

Interrelated Subsystems

The evaluation process described in the first section of this paper is interrelated with other subsystems within the total school system. More specifically, one can examine the relationship of the evaluation process described to other conceptions such as the management model, the learning cycle, and the personnel subsystem.

Concepts of management of school organizations have changed considerably during recent years. Many of the changes have involved a consideration of two central functions of administration, viz., decision making and control. The use of control by administrators is considered by some to stifle creativity and initiative, repress behavior that might be beneficial to the organization, and perpetuate uniformity through fear of reprisals. This repressive connotation of the term "control" has received less attention in the post-human-relations era; and in contrast, the development of cybernetics has caused administrators to view control as a process of establishing dynamic equilibrium in the organization through reduction of deviation amplification. Establishment of control in this context is accomplished by use of informative feedback (sometimes referred to as "neutral"--to indicate its non-evaluative nature) to reduce deviation amplification in relation to desired goals.

The managerial cycle (e.g., planning, implementing, maintaining, and evaluating) illustrated in Figure 4.1 is a natural outgrowth of cybernetic concepts and the use of feedback mechanisms for controlling organizations. The use of such a cycle serves two major functions: it provides the basis for individualized supervision practices, and it serves as a model for classroom teacher activities.

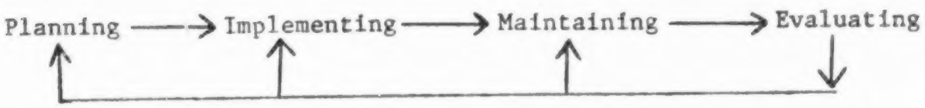


Figure 4.1. Four phases of a managerial cycle.

Although the learning cycle managed by the teacher is usually described as consisting of diagnosis, prescription, implementation, and evaluation (as illustrated in Figure 4.2), compatibility of the two cycles is evident to most teachers.

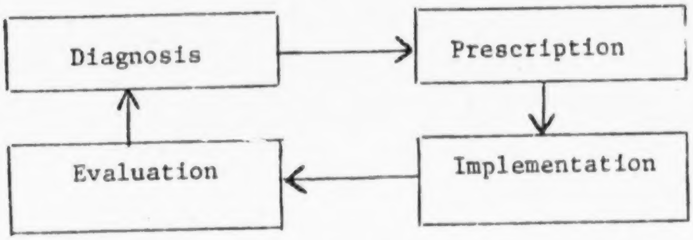


Figure 4.2. Four phases of a learning cycle.

Evaluation of personnel does not exist separately from other personnel functions. Therefore, one should not expect to understand the evaluation of processes and products of schools without examining the total personnel system. In analyzing the functioning of personnel systems, it is necessary to examine interrelationships among the selection, supervision and inservice, and the evaluation subsystems. While selection is based on a determination of needs for a specific situation, it provides a prediction of how an individual will perform and a determination of what type of supervision is appropriate for the person who is new on a job. Increasingly, the work of supervision and inservice training is being considered an individualized process based on information obtained from evaluation of performance as well as during the selection process. Evaluation, then, is related to each of the other two subsystems of the personnel system in that it provides feedback to make sure that the total system is functioning adequately; in the case of selection, it provides validation information; whereas for supervision and inservice training, it furnishes information regarding needs of individuals so that assistance and decisions can be made appropriate.

Provisions needed in an evaluation system

In order for an evaluation of school processes and products to be integrated with other subsystems and to contribute to the functioning of the total school system, there must be a means to:

1. determine direction,
2. take action and acquire support,
3. monitor processes and make intermediate decisions,
4. provide support to the processes, and
5. make terminal decisions.

Determining the direction of a school, teacher, or a principal has been discussed previously in this paper and has received considerable attention in educational literature. It should be sufficient at this point to indicate that this involves specification of rather general goals or mission statements as well as more specific measurable objectives. The specific objectives are beneficial because of their implications for specifying procedures.

Prior to taking action to accomplish goals and objectives, it is necessary to acquire material and psychological support for the action to be taken. Unless commitment is obtained for people, time, and material resources, actions cannot be taken for planning--much less for implementation, maintenance, or evaluation. Commitment to support goals and objectives involves much more than simply encouragement to "go ahead and try it", or statements which imply that "I have no negative reactions to your proceeding with your plan." Such encouragement (or lack of discouragement) without commitment of resources may predetermine the results of evaluation of both processes and products at a later point.

Resources are needed to evaluate the end results or outcomes, but there is also the necessity to establish a means for monitoring procedures in such a manner that intermediate decisions can be made and procedures changed prior to the time of a summative evaluation. This means that one may desire to monitor the planning, implementation, and maintenance procedures used by a principal prior to the time that an evaluation is made of the total effect of his procedures on those with whom he is working.

Providing support to the procedures (used by a principal, for example) during the time the procedures are being used is a part of the maintenance function of the supervisor (of the principal). If the supervisor is maintaining that portion of the system for which he is responsible, he is seeing to it that his subordinates have the necessary staff, materials and equipment, and facilities necessary to accomplish their tasks. This support is agreed upon during the planning phase, but the supervisor's management system should allow him to provide this support at the appropriate time in order for the subordinate to function effectively. A breakdown of such support will need to be considered as a contributory factor if there is a discrepancy between the actual outcomes and the goals and objectives established.

Terminal decisions are simply those decisions made at the completion of a given cycle as explained in the first section of this paper, and may be either positive, negative, or inconclusive. Terminal decisions are normally made at the end of a given time period (e.g., at the end of a completed project, or the end of a school year), but they may be made prior to a normal terminal point if it is decided that the cost/benefit ratio is unsatisfactory. Regardless of when they are made, it is necessary that the evaluation system be designed in such a manner that there is adequate information available for a justifiable decision to be made.

Self evaluation, evaluation by others

The trend toward self evaluation has obtained its impetus from the teaching profession and the human relations emphasis therein. Consequently, its focus has been primarily on the process needed to accomplish objectives rather than the objectives. This substitution of measurement of process for product has been justified by some on the grounds that the long-range goals of education are too difficult to measure, and the short-range goals of education are so difficult to attribute to causal factors that relating them to specific individuals' activities is unwarranted. The focus on procedures has been criticized on the basis that it makes unjustified assumptions regarding relationships between those procedures considered "good" and the results of the procedures; in effect, unless certain behaviors are known to produce certain results, very little benefit is obtained from evaluating behavior in isolation from the outcomes.

Since "pure" self evaluation does not require an external observer in the measurement process, it has the advantage of reducing external threat and the potential for increasing creativity and motivation. However, if the individual being evaluated (either a principal or a teacher) chooses to ignore district goals or to establish goals incompatible with those of the organization, to examine behaviors in isolation from outcomes, or to interpret data in a biased fashion because of prejudice or bias, he may do so under a system of self evaluation. Therefore, self evaluation has advantages and disadvantages.

To capitalize on initiative and creativity, individuals in an organization should be encouraged to develop systems of self evaluation. However, to assure the organization that the goals, objectives and procedures of personnel within the system are compatible with those of the organization, it is necessary that data be collected and analyzed by other individuals. Therefore, the system for evaluation of school processes and products should include means for self evaluation and evaluation by outsiders.

Common and Specific situation objectives and processes

For a substantial period of time, education research personnel have searched exhaustively for generalized statements regarding the effectiveness of teachers. They have spent less time conducting analogous research regarding effectiveness of administrators and supervisors, but the same reasoning led to searching for the generally effective administrator. The results of these research efforts have caused research personnel to conclude that effectiveness in teaching and administration is more situation specific than generalizable. Therefore, more recent efforts have attempted to determine the impact of situations on objectives desired, procedures used, and results of these procedures. In effect, more people are asking, "What works for me, in my situation?" or "What procedures do I need to use in order to obtain the results desired in this situation?" rather than "What is good administrative and supervisory behavior?" In order to answer the question for the specific situation, it is necessary to have good measures of both process and product; measurement of the product is necessary to determine if objectives were obtained, and measurement of the process is necessary to determine what produced the results and to decide on future actions.

This does not mean that it would be wise to abandon job descriptions of a general position (e.g., elementary principal) within a school system, because there may be a number of responsibilities and tasks which are common to all of the people in that position. Such a job description might be quite beneficial to orient new principals or to evaluate commonly held responsibilities. However, because of the lack of homogeneity of situations, there generally also exists the necessity to make a specific position task analysis in order to determine what products and processes are unique to that specific situation. Many school systems do not recognize this necessity, as evidenced by uniform reporting forms which do not have provisions for unique neighborhoods, children, staff, or learning facilities. Central office personnel may have reasonable justification for desiring some common criteria for judging effectiveness in relation to district-wide goals, but they should encourage principals to make a case for the uniqueness of their situation and the necessity for evaluation procedures which consider this uniqueness.

A Synthesis

The discussion thus far has been concerned with the notion that evaluation is the process of making judgments regarding the value or "goodness" of certain behaviors, events, or results of events in terms of certain agreed upon or well understood objectives. Notice that the implications of such a definition include: (a) there is movement as indicated by the term "process", and this movement has been described as consisting of cyclical and iterative phases; (b) direction must be established in terms of objectives; (c) measurement is a necessary element; and (d) analysis and interpretation precede the attaching of values to processes or products.

Because of the complexity of the evaluation process, it has been approached in several ways (e.g., in terms of a general evaluation model, from a systems analysis perspective, in terms of its relationship to other subsystems, etc.). At this point, it might be beneficial to synthesize what has been discussed in two ways: (a) by providing a relatively general model which includes elements of several of the previously discussed concepts, and (b) by providing a prototype form which might be useful in the early phases of evaluation for incorporating some of the necessary elements.

General model. Figure 8.1 is an illustration of activities included in the evaluation of processes and products of a school. Note that it is basically a systems analysis model (including input, process, and output); that it includes the four elements of the managerial cycle; that the phases are sequential and cyclical, repeating themselves in an iterative fashion; that it provides for intermediate as well as terminal decisions; and that it incorporates decisions regarding the appropriateness of goals as well as products and processes. It does not specify the responsibilities of various people for the activities specified because it is assumed that this specification must occur in a given situation.

Planning form. The attached form is suggested for use in one of the outcome areas for which a principal is responsible (program development). It would be completed by a principal and discussed with his supervisor. It would provide the stimulus for planning and the means for making decisions regarding support for this outcome area. In addition, it would provide specifications regarding measurement which would be necessary for both intermediate and terminal decisions. Similar forms could be used for other outcome areas such as Personnel Management, Management Services, School Community Services, and Research and Information Services.

Summary. The intent of the model and the form is to provide a means for combining many of the concepts discussed in this paper. Each provides structure to the evaluation process which might be common to a total school system, yet each encourages initiative and creativity by not specifying that all schools function in the same manner or have the same objectives. A system which used both the model and the form could easily encourage self-evaluation as well as outside examination of process and product. Both the model and the form could be adapted for use with teachers or for central office personnel by incorporating differing phases in the model and different outcome areas for the forms.